DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 091 134 RC 007 898

TITLE	Texas Migrant Labor. 1973 Annual Report.
INSTITUTION	Good Neighbor Commission of Texas, Austin.
PUB DATE	73
NOTE	71p.; For related document, see ED 079 009
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.75 HC-$3.15 PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS	*Agricultural Laborers; *Annual Reports; Bilingual Education; Change Agents; Economic Factors; Education; Foreign Workers; Health; Housing; *Mexican Americans; *Migrant Workers; Migration Patterns; Program Descriptions; Program Development; *Socioeconomic Influences; Spanish Speaking; Vocational Education
IDENTIFIERS	Good Neighbor Commission; *Texas

ABSTRACT

The Good Neighbor Commission of Texas, organized under a 1943 Federal grant and later constituted as a State agency, coordinates the work of the Federal, State, and local governments in improving travel and working conditions of migrant farm workers. The basic responsibilities presented in its 1973 annual report are: (1) surveying conditions and determining problem areas for migrants and (2) developing, in coordination with State agencies, specific programs to meet the needs of agricultural workers and their families. An overview of Texas migrant labor describes the emergence and final domination of the seasonal agricultural labor force by Spanish speaking people (primarily Mexican American). The report also discusses Texas agriculture and migrant labor, alien labor and immigration, and vocational programs for migrants. Current developments in education, housing, health, jobs, and economics are also presented. Brief recommendations which would result in direct and immediate benefit to migrants and their families are given, some of which will require legislative action, while others will require administrative directives to bring about refinement, and in some cases redirection, of agency programs. (NQ)

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Texas Migrant Labor 1973 Annual Report

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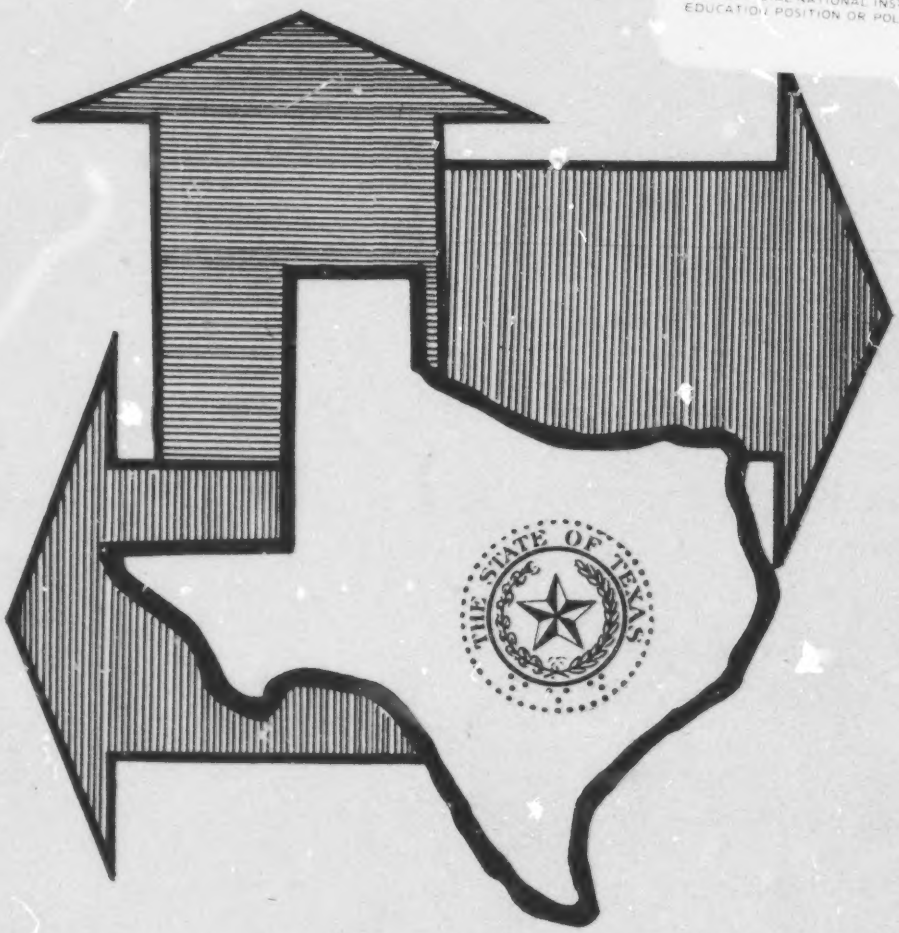

Good Neighbor Commission of Texas

RC007898

TEXAS MIGRANT LABOR
Annual Report
1973

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GOOD NEIGHBOR COMMISSION
OF TEXAS

The Honorable Dolph Briscoe, Governor
Members of the Legislature, State of Texas

Gentlemen:

In compliance with Sub-section 8, under Section 4 of the Commission's basic law (H.B. 468, 50th Leg., 1947, as amended by S.B. 179, 59th Leg., 1965, and S.B. 676, 62nd Leg., 1971), I am respectfully transmitting herewith the 1973 Annual Report on Texas Migrant Labor.

This report is the only one published by a state agency which covers the full spectrum of migrant labor activity, i e., health, education, transportation, labor camps, housing, legislative development, etc., related directly to the improvement of the well-being of migrant seasonal farmworkers. It essentially complies with the Commission's legislative charge, "To coordinate the work of the federal, state and local government toward the improvement of travel and living conditions of migrant laborers in Texas." The report not only chronicles the facts, conditions and circumstances which focus on the socio-economic plight of migrant families on a yearly basis, but it also contains statistical information which can be useful in the development of programs in addressing the needs of migrant farmworkers in Texas.

The Good Neighbor Commission of Texas wishes to express appreciation for the helpful cooperation of local, state and federal offices, as well as the many private groups and individuals who have provided relevant information essential to the preparation of the report.

Sincerely yours,

Oscar M. Laurel

Oscar M. Laurel
Executive Director

PREFACE

The Good Neighbor Commission of Texas, organized under a federal grant in 1943 and later funded by legislative appropriations, is charged under its basic law to coordinate the work of federal, state and local government units endeavoring to improve the living and working conditions of Texas migrant farmworkers and their families.

In accordance with its legislative mandate, this Commission continues in its efforts to assist in program development and evaluation of Texas projects aimed at bettering the lot of migrant farmworkers most of whom come from the Lower Rio Grande Valley and South Texas.

In surveying conditions which migrants encounter both at home and in their work destinations, this Commission has relied for the past years on the excellent cooperation provided by government and private agencies, as well as its own research, in evaluating operational programs for migrants. This involvement is essential for the preparation of this annual report, which has been published for more than a decade, and which we attempt to make as constructive and factual as possible.

We of the Commission are grateful for the collaboration received and welcome any comments or suggestions that could assist us in making this Report more useful to those persons and agencies involved in serving the needs of the migrant farmworkers of this state.

The Executive offices are located in the Sam Houston State Office Building in Austin and the mailing address is:

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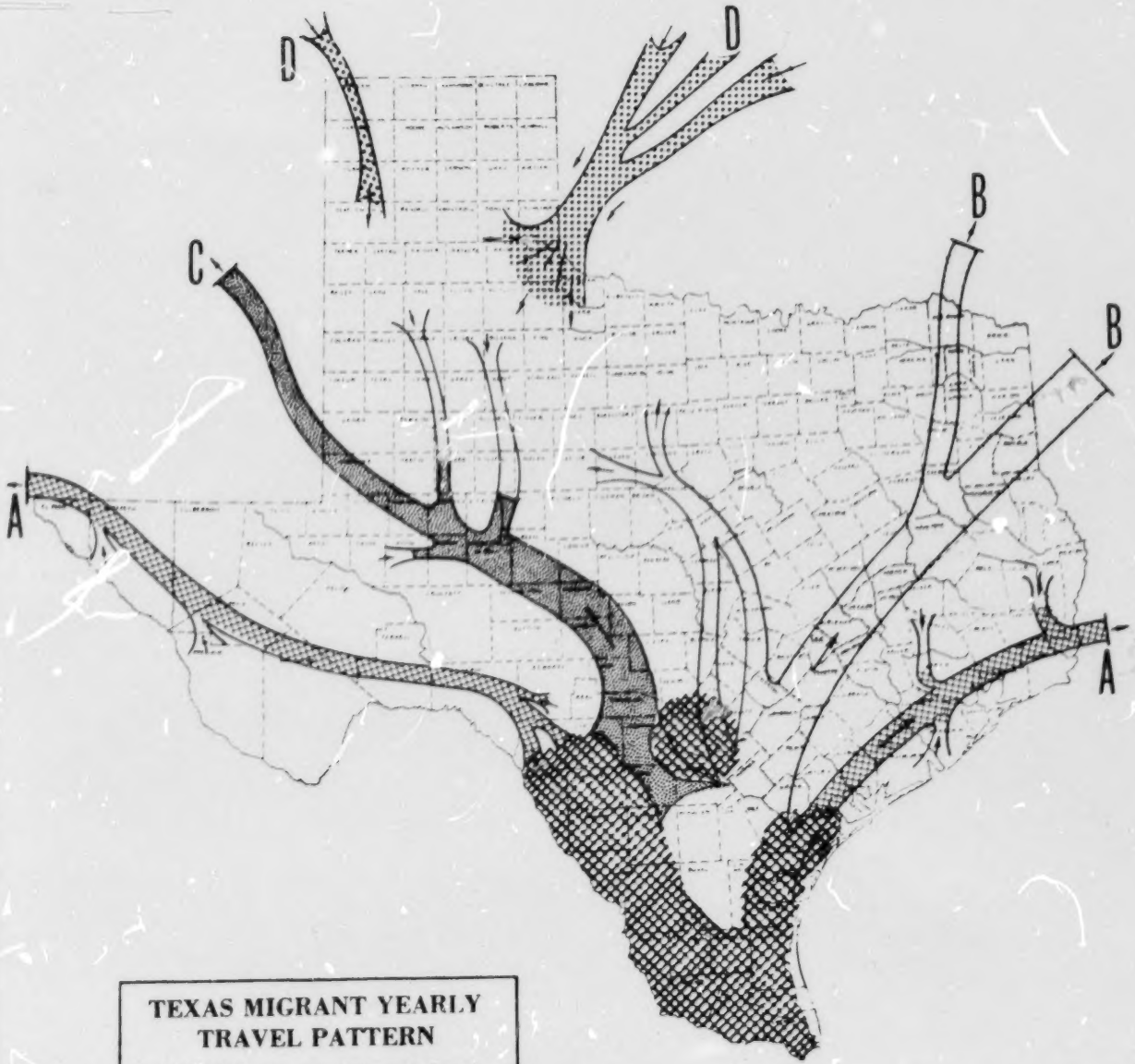


TEXAS MIGRANT YEARLY TRAVEL PATTERN

A — Cal.—Early Spring up to Sept.
Fla.—April to June; Dec. to Feb.

B — Main Spring Migration Northward

C — Colo. & Idaho
Wash. & Ore. —Spr. through Fall

D — Returning Late Fall Migration

Principal Source of Migrant Labor

TEXAS MIGRANT LABOR--AN OVERVIEW

It has been the norm for almost ten years, in preparing a comprehensive report, to familiarize the reader with the topic for review by means of a general introduction of the subject matter. In introducing the Texas migrant farmworker, an Overview is used not only to clarify who is a migrant and why he is one, but also to understand his characteristics, concerns and unique problems which set him apart from the rest of society. The reader who is familiar with migratory work patterns and conditions knows that during the past several years there have been many articles, declarations and commentaries published concerning these economically and socially deprived people. Persons from throughout the land have shown concern and interest by researching and conducting studies to develop effective ways of improving services to migrants who work chiefly in agriculture in various parts of the United States. The media has also provided fine coverage on matters dealing with the migrant people who struggle to earn their living in an atmosphere of relentless uncertainty. As a result of these facts, figures and opinions the citizenry has developed an awareness that there is a migrant "problem" in our nation and that steps must be taken to alleviate their present situation, and, that time is of the essence.

A migratory farm laborer is a worker whose principal income is earned from temporary farm employment and who in the course of his year's work moves one or more times, often through several states. As a product of agricultural evolution the migrant is in a continuous state of flux and change over which he exercises little or no control. Entering the twentieth century one out of every three persons of the nation's population lived on a farm and seldom was there a need for additional agricultural help since farm families as a rule were large. Those who were hired to do farm work were generally alien immigrants who worked for temporary income. After the industrial revolution began and as changes occurred in agricultural technology, rural workers were attracted to urban areas causing the farmer to employ "supplemental farmworkers" during certain seasons of the year. This supplemental worker proved to be the forerunner of the present day migrant farmworker.

A brief review will indicate that it is only natural that our Texas farm labor force be made up almost entirely of Mexican Americans. First of all, the United States acquired an instant population increase in 1848 when the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was signed. The Mexican people living in this great territory, which we know today as the Southwest, were, and have continued to be, land oriented. Most of them decided to adopt U.S. citizenship rather than uproot and seek a new beginning in Mexico. By 1900 immigration from Europe had been limited by the Alien Contract Labor Law and Asian immigration had long since been reduced by the Exclusion Act. Within a short period of time the Mexican American residents were to increase by almost a million exiles, from all walks of life, fleeing the political unrest and oppression which was evident in Mexico during the era of revolution and upheaval. The significance of this exodus is apparent when one notices that this is the only time (1910-1920) the Republic of Mexico shows an actual loss in population since statistics were first gathered in 1880. After political stability was recovered in Mexico many Mexicans returned to their native land. However, the greatest majority of the people, those who owned modest homes, the less affluent and even the rootless drifters, remained on U.S. soil.

Following the enactment of the Immigration Act of 1917, Western Hemisphere aliens sought temporary admission into this country for a fixed length of time in order to work in industry or agriculture. Later, when national quotas were established for the Eastern Hemisphere in 1924, immigration from Europe sharply diminished but caused no change in the "de facto" open border with Mexico and immigration into the Southwest, particularly into Texas, was intensified. The depression days of the 1930's then followed, when farms in the central portion of the country could not be maintained because of drought conditions. Many families were driven from their farms departing for the West to never return. After the U.S. economy began to recover from the depression then came the event that resulted in the farm labor turnabout - - the manpower shortage of World War II. When the available farm labor force from all parts of the country was drawn into war industry and the armed forces, it was replaced by Mexican Americans who were unquestionably qualified for farm work by their rural traditions and culture.

The vivid and drastic displacement of labor forces by the war effort was not without its consequences. Almost immediately it was apparent that the demand for labor at peak season harvest could not be satisfactorily met by our domestic labor supply. The only solution was to import labor to the Northwest, the Mid-West and the Great Lakes area where thousands of farmworkers would be needed. The obvious source of supply to tap for farmworkers was south of the border, and regulations had to be developed to control and safeguard the foreign worker (95% were Mexican aliens) who was to work and live temporarily in the United States. The initial agreement between the United States and Mexico, which was reached late in 1942, gave birth to the Bracero Program which was enacted by Congress as Public Law #78 in July of 1951. The Bracero Act codified and regulated such matters as recruitment, transportation, working conditions, contractural obligations, etc. The original agreement, which was to continue until the end of 1964, was frequently modified and, due to lack of congressional renewal, the program ceased to exist. With the termination of the program it meant that the burden of harvesting crops and processing canned goods would now fall on domestic farmworkers.

The Texas migratory farm labor force is made up almost entirely of Mexican Americans who are native born American citizens, but who continue to hold a strong cultural affinity with Mexico and customs related to their background. Because of their low earning potential in their "home" areas, these workers migrate in search of better employment opportunities, either as singles, as a family unit or as crew members. The average Texas migrant can be described as male and married, about 45 years old with two years or less of schooling, with a family of six-plus individuals and who is employed 28 weeks a year. As a person who possesses no marketable skills he seems to become more "locked-in" the poverty cycle and less capable of self improvement. However, each year the availability of these workers has been necessary to satisfy the critical demand for short term seasonal labor that exists in many of the nation's farm areas.

The pattern of migrant life and work creates problems that are not solved by any single community, or even by a single State. While the migrant contributes vital labor and a good part of his income to the locality where he works, he still encounters difficulties dealing with community facilities and services. These difficulties are further complicated by mobility, which adds to expenses and reduces income while contributing to illiteracy, poor working conditions, inadequate housing, and lack of sanitation. It should be emphasized that none of these problems exists in isolation; nearly every problem area is an inseparable part of every other problem area.

The Texas migrant stream has decreased at a steady 3-4% a year since 1965 but in 1970 figures showed a 7% decrease. Since then it has been impossible to arrive at a statistically supportable

figure due to the inability to count the "freewheelers", so the Department of Labor now draws comparisons based on the total "man-months" of seasonal work available. In 1971 and 1972 the decline in man-months of work was 8% while the decrease in job opportunities was even greater, 10% and 12% respectively. This can be compared to a 3% decrease in man-months of work and 4% decline in job opportunities in 1973, due in part to the fact that more seasonal farm work is being done by local workers and students. As the labor force increases and the number of jobs decreases, the migrant faces the frustrating situation of decreasing yearly earnings and increasing cost of living. So, even with a well planned work season backed up with job contracts, there is no real guarantee that the migrant will find the earnings for which he traveled so far and which he so critically needs. The thrust of all migrant oriented programs is to correct this unfair and unrealistic condition in an attempt to establish an elusive guarantee which, when combined with the migrant's desire to work and earn his way, will provide an environment of better economic security.

Indications are that people do not become migrants primarily because they want to or like to be migrants. Among the reasons for migrancy, the foremost is that many people find it impossible to make a living in a single location and hence have had to become migratory. Technological displacement, business recession and consequent unemployment in industry, drought and crop failure, radical changes in the sharecropper system, lack of education and vocational training are among the basic factors responsible for migrancy.

Migratory farm laborers move restlessly over the face of the land, but they neither belong to the land nor does the land belong to them. They pass through community after community, but they neither claim the community as home nor does the community claim them. Under the law, the domestic migrants are citizens of the United States but they are scarcely more a part of the land of their birth than the alien migrants working beside them.

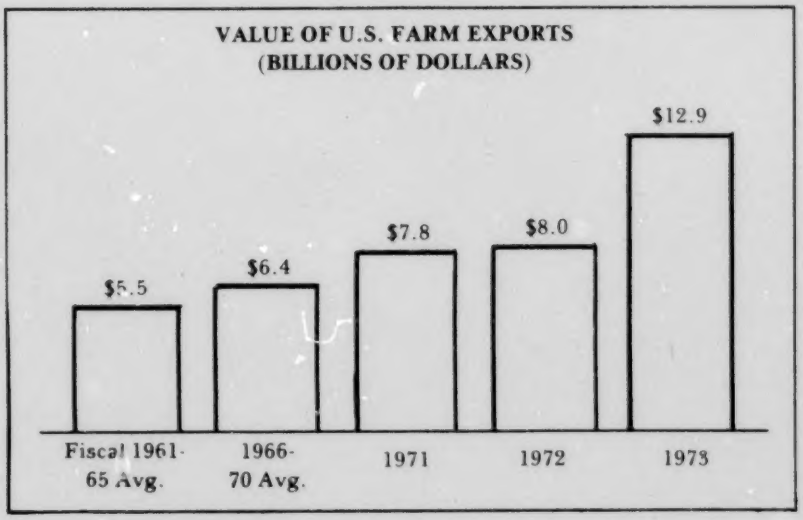
Now that there has been a growing public awareness in recent years of the plight of the migrant worker, we must strive to develop and implement manpower policies that will improve the job opportunities and the living conditions of the migrant who has not mastered a skill and speaks little or no English. The appeal is made to the American conscience since this important human resource cannot be denied help. The migrant and his family cannot confront this situation alone any longer. He is being heard from and others are speaking out for him.

TEXAS AGRICULTURE AND MIGRANT LABOR

The national and Texas scenes in agriculture for 1973 reached new highs in total crop production and value as larger acreages more than offset lower yields for most crops. The net national income for 1973 was estimated at $25 billion in comparison with $19.7 billion in 1972 and $15.2 billion in 1971. Most forecasters expect a continued upward trend in agricultural activities in 1974, despite the energy crisis, since domestic and world food supplies are low, acreage restrictions have been relaxed and prices are high; weather permitting, farmers should have another good year.

Acreage of principal crops planted in 1973 totaled 320 million acres, 9 percent or about 25 million acres more than in 1972. The increases occurred mostly in oilseeds, feed grains and food grains. Acreage of principal crops harvested in 1973 totaled 312 million acres, up 10 percent, or 28 million acres from the previous year. Even though producers harvested more acres of nearly all crops, there were some exceptions such as cotton, rye, popcorn, dry beans, sweet potatoes and sugar beets.

U.S. farm exports during fiscal 1973 soared to an all-time high of $12.9 billion, nearly a 60 percent increase from the previous high of $8.05 billion set in 1972. Farmers in 10 states should be credited for the role they played in the astonishing rise of U.S. farm exports. Illinois was the pacesetter with exports of $1,311 million. The other leading States and their export sales (in millions of dollars) were: (2) Iowa = 1,096; (3) Texas = 799; (4) Kansas = 775; (5) California = 774; (6) Indiana = 608; (7) Minnesota = 597; (8) Nebraska = 565; (9) North Carolina = 526; (10) Missouri = 508. These States were the ones which accounted for $7.6 billion or nearly three-fifths, of the total farm exports for 1973. The following chart shows the tremendous increase of U.S. farm exports which made 1973 a banner year.



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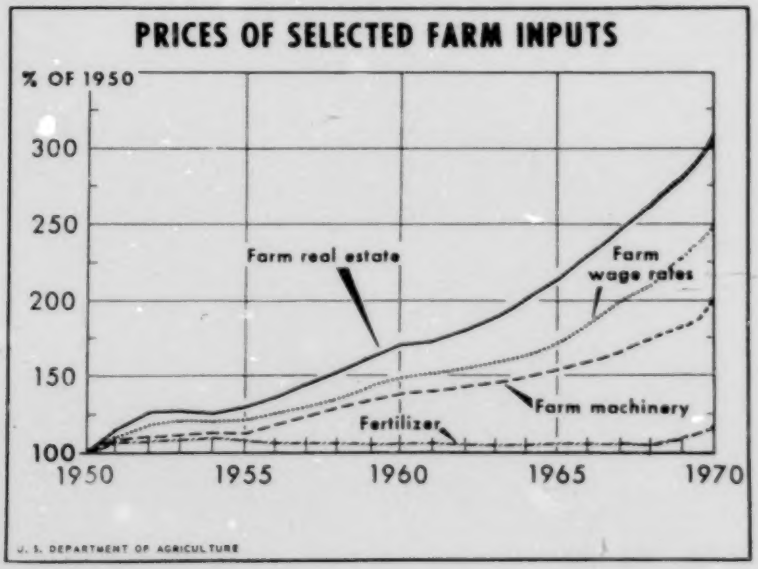
Although imports of agricultural products in 1973 also rose sharply to $7.3 billion, (up 20% over FY-1972) it should be pointed out that the farm side of the trade ledger was the brightest spot in our nation's balance of trade.

Technology often changes the productivity of certain farm inputs and paired with changes in their cost causes the economic relationships to change. In the following chart the United States Department of Agriculture examines prices of selected farm inputs. The indexes of labor and machinery are moving the same direction, but the rate of price increase for labor is 50 percent faster than that for farm machinery. This price relationship has helped provide the economic environment to substitute machinery for labor.

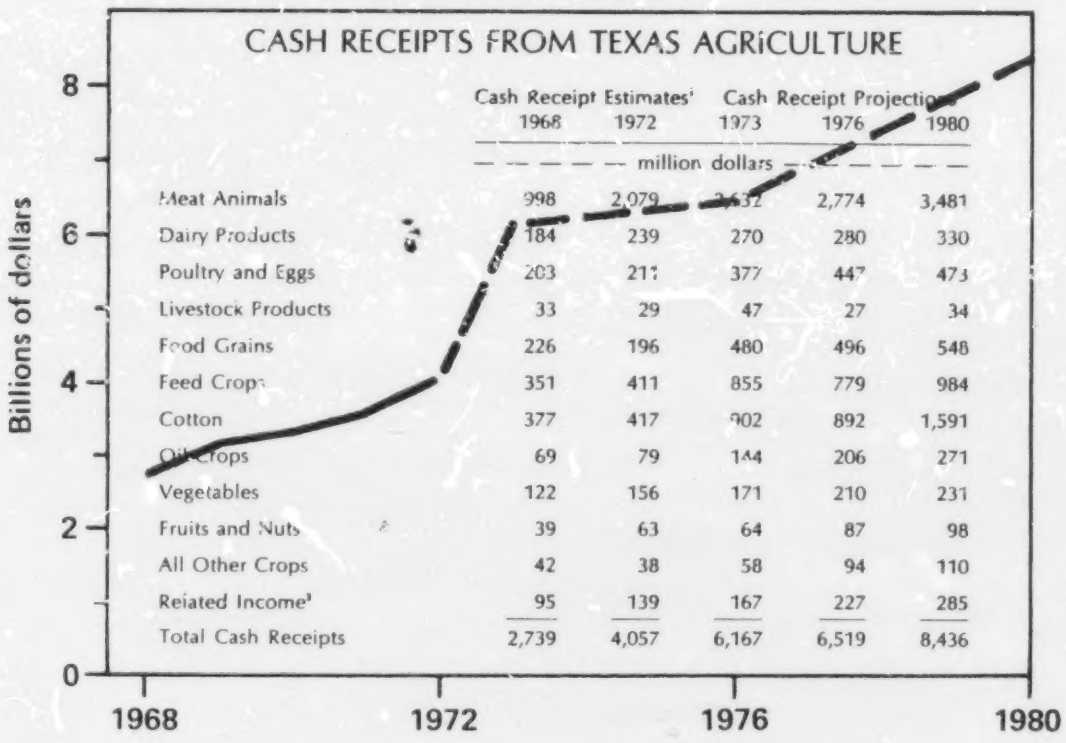


Texas farm income in 1973 reached its highest point, $5.6 billion, by surpassing an agricultural goal set four years ago that was projected to be attained by the end of the 1976 crop year. Although at present we are third behind Iowa and California, by looking at this record income, Texas' agricultural leaders are now predicting that Texas will move into the No. 1 position of agricultural income by 1980. Indeed, Texas has the necessary resources to achieve the goal of becoming the top agricultural State. Among the State's advantages are available land resources plus the production of (1) all phases of the livestock industry, especially beef cattle, (2) food and feed grains for domestic use and export trade, (3) cotton and other natural fibers, (4) fresh and processed vegetables, (5) soy beans and sunflowers, (6) sugar cane, (7) mariculture, and (8) the expansion of its processing industry.

The possibility of Texas' farmers reaching first place through production records is envisioned by the increasing momentum of the State's agricultural economy. Cash income trends for Texas agriculture have turned sharply upward since 1968. When the 1968 through 1973 trends are projected through 1980, the potential reaches $8.1 billion. This is a measure of the economic activity generated throughout the economy by the production or cash sales of agricultural commodities. The three principal commodities in Texas are: (1) meat animals which accounted for 43 percent of the state's agricultural income in 1973, (2) cotton, 15 percent and (3) feeds, 14 percent.

Projected 1990 receipts from meat animals is expected to remain about the same at 42 percent, cotton's share should increase to 19 percent, while total feeds may dip slightly to 12 percent. The Texas Department of Agriculture reports indicate that agricultural income from 1960 to 1968 rose 18 percent, but the change from 1968 through 1972 was a tremendous 48 percent with meat animals leading the way. The following chart shows the economic relationship between our principal crops as well as the dotted line projection toward an $8 billion plus agricultural value.

AGRICULTURAL CASH RECEIPTS PROJECTION



	Cash Receipt Estimates[1]		Cash Receipt Projections		
	1968	1972	1973	1976	1980
	million dollars				
Meat Animals	998	2,079	3,632	2,774	3,481
Dairy Products	184	239	270	280	330
Poultry and Eggs	203	211	377	447	473
Livestock Products	33	29	47	27	34
Food Grains	226	196	480	496	548
Feed Crops	351	411	855	779	984
Cotton	377	417	902	892	1,591
Oil Crops	69	79	144	206	271
Vegetables	122	156	171	210	231
Fruits and Nuts	39	63	64	87	98
All Other Crops	42	38	58	94	110
Related Income[2]	95	139	167	227	285
Total Cash Receipts	2,739	4,057	6,167	6,519	8,436

The production index for the 14 most important crops stood at 140 for 1973 (1957-59 = 100) which is 28 points above the index for 1972. This is actually a reflection of the generally favorable crop conditions that prevailed in 1973. Considerable increases in production occurred, establishing record highs for cotton, barley, corn, hay, oats, Irish potatoes, sorghum, soybeans, sugar cane, and wheat. The only products that failed to reach production levels achieved in 1972 were flaxseed, peanuts, rice, sugar beets, and sweet potatoes. Weatherwise, for most areas of the State, the 1973 crop season could be summarized as an extremely wet spring accompanied by severe flooding which caused very late planting followed by favorable summer weather and an unusually quick harvest of record crops. This was in contrast to the fall of 1972 when extremely wet weather and muddy fields delayed crop harvesting and caused large acreages to be harvested during the first months of 1973.

Tropical storm Delia which struck near Galveston on September 3, 1973, initiated heavy rains over the Plains States damaging the hay harvested crops in Texas and several other states. It appeared the fall harvest was going to be down in mud as it had in 1972, but dry and sunny weather after mid-October made it possible for farmers to push harvest completion ahead of schedule.

The Texas citrus crop was down by about 10 percent, due to freezing weather in the Lower Rio Grande Valley in late December. Trees received no permanent damage from temperatures as low as 20 degrees, but buds received some damage and as a result the estimated tonnage of oranges and grapefruit had to be revised. It was estimated by the United States Department of Agriculture that the Texas orange production in 1973 was to be 8 million boxes, but because of the freeze, that estimate was revised to 7.2 million boxes. The grapefruit harvest was estimated to come in at 11.5 million boxes, 4 million boxes less than the original forecast.

In 1973, all cotton production in the United States reached an estimated 13.0 million bales, down 5 percent from 1972. However in Texas, the nation's leading producer since 1880, 4.65 million bales were ginned amounting to nearly 10 percent above last year. Cotton, being the state's most valuable crop currently yields 15 percent of the total cash receipts from farm marketings and since 1956, annual production has averaged 4 millions bales which is 30 percent of the nation's total. It is projected that income from cotton will be $1.6 billion by 1980, thus establishing an economic impact on the state's total agricultural economy of $8.0 billion.

The Texas grain sorghum production totaled a record 417 million bushels compared with 319.8 million bushels in 1972. Partial credit for this comes from a record yield of 60 bushels per acre compared to the 59 bushels in 1972, the previous record yield. The estimated acres harvested were 7 million which, being considerably above the 5.4 million acres harvested in 1972, is the main reason for the record crop.

Wheat production in the State for 1973 is estimated at 98.6 million bushels (the second largest production on record), better than twice the 1972 crop of 44 million bushels. This is the largest production since 117 million bushels were harvested in 1947. The yield was 29 bushels per acre compared to 22 bushels for 1972.

Contribution of the Three Principal Crops

	1970	1971	1972	1973
Total dollar value: (in billions)	$1.261	$1.132	$1.693	$3.483
Percent contribution:				
Cotton	29%	25%	28%	29%
Sorghum	27%	27%	25%	25%
Rice	9%	11%	8%	8%
Total contribution:	65%	63%	61%	62%

The principal areas of agricultural production for the State are the Lower Rio Grande Valley, the High Rolling Plains and the Winter Garden area at the center of the Rio Grande Plains. This is of interest to our intrastate migrant workers since many crops still require much field labor during cultivation and harvest time. Use of herbicides continues to reduce the amount of hoeing necessary and limited use of mechanical diggers is proving economical for harvesting some vegetables and tubers, all of which means fewer jobs. The following table shows clearly what is

occurring with the total seasonal migrant work force and its effect on intrastate travel. Attention is called to the three mid-summer months which last year showed almost the same level of employment as in 1972. It appears that the demand for migrant farm labor in Texas is leveling off which would indicate that the jobs lost to mechanization are being offset by new work opportunities due to increased agricultural activities in the drive to reach our 1980 goal of being Number One.

STATEWIDE SEASONAL EMPLOYMENT — INTRASTATE MIGRANTS
(thousands)

Year	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D
1968	1.3	2.2	9.5	13.9	6.4	5.9	5.8	12.0	
1969	1.5	2.6	10.0	20.?	14.5	4.3	5.0	4.4	7.3
1970	2.0	2.1	7.0	19.4	14.6	3.5	1.5	2.7	5.6
1971	1.5	1.4	6.2	17.7	12.6	3.6	1.2	1.6	2.5
1972	1.2	1.4	4.1	16 7	11.8	2 1	1.2	1.6	4.8
1973	.7	1 2	4.0	15.3	12.7	2.2	.8	1.7	4.9

Texas Employment Commission

The following figures on seasonal job placements in Texas agriculture, obtained from the Texas Employment Commission, clearly show that actual job placements in seasonal work continue to decline tremendously.

Seasonal Farm Job Placement in Texas

	1968	1970	1972	1973
Total Placements	234,000	195,600	150,000	133,706
Average per month	19,506	16,305	12,510	11,142
High Month	38,865 June	28,695 Aug.	32,441 June	31,347 June
Low Month	7,607 July	5,290 Sept.	3,103 Jan.	3,540 Jan.

The Annual Worker Plan of the Employment Service, which is now referred to as the Rural Manpower Mobility Plan, provides a method by which a migrant crew or family may plan a whole season's itinerary. The objectives of the Plan are to reduce the time lost between jobs by migrant workers and to help provide employers with a dependable labor supply. Some groups seek itineraries covering the entire season from spring to late fall; others prefer to work only part of the season. As it is indicated in the following chart, the number of placements made in the last five years by the Texas Employment Commission have decreased to 25 percent of the 1969 level. This is due in part to the federal labor housing requirements, mechanization implications, as well as increases in the number of "freewheelers" and direct recruiters, all of which reduce the number of seasonal workers that avail themselves of TEC's services. In spite of the declining number of TEC referrals, migrancy will continue for the foreseeable future.

T.E.C. — ANNUAL WORKER PLAN
(Form 369)

	Openings	Placements	Percentage
1969	67,500	44,500	66
1970	50,000	31,000	62
1971	27,500	17,500	63
1972	22,000	13,600	62
1973	18,900	10,500	56

Crewleader registration efforts are made each year to acquaint crewleaders with provisions of the Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act of 1963. It is explained that all crewleaders who transport ten or more workers must contact the nearest local employment office in order to comply with federal requirements. Still, many crewleaders ignore this law to avoid the cost of liability insurance, approved transportation, etc. Knowing that the Department of Labor has no enforcement powers in this respect, it is easy to see why there has been such a drop in the number of crewleader registrations within the past several years.

CREWLEADERS REGISTERED

1968---1,446	1971---1,330
1969---1,562	1972---1,072
1970---1,561	1973--- 915

Violent spring weather over much of the southern half of the State dealt a serious setback to cotton farmers causing the 1973 cotton crop to be plagued by cold and wet fields. Many fields in this area were left standing in water and others were so thoroughly saturated that field operations were brought to a standstill causing poor crop quality, in some cases too poor even to gin. Planting on the High and Low Rolling Plains started on schedule and made excellent progress. In this area the cotton harvest advanced rapidly in the latter part of 1973 winding up with 2.7 million bales from the Plains region. The total Texas upland cotton crop reached 4.7 million bales, which was about 50,000 bales under the original estimates since the Lower Valley did not produce its expected share. This placed the average yield per acre at 429 pounds of lint, better than the 408 average of the previous season and a high for the decade. This is the largest upland cotton production in Texas since 4.8 million bales were harvested in 1961.

An evident shortage of workers in West Texas and the Rolling Plains occurred in the ginning industry, which included ginners, gin workers and stompers. The 1973 recruitment of ginners and gin hands began early in the year in all areas of Texas, especially in the southern part of the State. In August the Farm Labor Bulletin, a weekly publication with statewide coverage, began announcing the need for ginners and gin workers. Specific information was provided by the state office of Rural Manpower Services (T.E.C.) to all local employment offices which had this type of workers available. Furthermore, the news media emphasized the need for ginners and other cotton harvest workers in West Texas. As a result, 1,571 placements of ginners and gin hands were made from nearly 300 different orders. The cotton harvest at the end of the year was about 95 percent

complete, nevertheless, there were still unfilled positions for approximately 100 gin workers. The following table provides a break-down of cotton gin worker recruitment by the Texas Employment Commission for the last several years.

COTTON GIN WORKER REFERRALS
BY T.E.C.

	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973
Brownsville				31	13	
Corpus Christi				36	76	130
Crystal City		10	23	2	11	29
Eagle Pass		4	21	17	35	155
Edinburg	114	123	148	87	100	100
El Paso	5	44	100	120	173	514
Elsa	55	60	53	38	39	38
Harlingen	14			11	24	60
Laredo	25	57	72	31	109	183
McAllen	5		79	28	128	167
San Angelo					31	32
San Antonio			6	3	13	34
Weslaco		2	68	46	73	52
Temple/Waco						27
Austin District	3				46	
Dallas/Ft. Worth					27	17
Houston District					27	14
Others	8		19		22	18
Total	229	300	589	450	947	1,571

Mechanization and modern research on cotton handling has brought new methods for growers to increase their profits. A newly-developed cotton rick compactor and cotton module builder for handling and storing seed cotton was first field tested in August of 1972 in the Lower Rio Grande Valley. Since then many cotton growers have started using these mechanical methods for improved profits and savings. The rick compactor, which stacks seed cotton into free-standing ricks of indeterminate length on the ground, and the cotton module builder, which stacks cotton onto wood pallets to guard against ground moisture, were developed for rain-belt areas. Both the rick compactor and the module builder enable a producer to harvest his cotton as maturation of the crop dictates, without worrying about ginning schedules or trailer tie-ups. Both systems offer additional savings through increased harvester efficiencies and lower labor costs. The new machinery has been well field tested and producers are convinced that these techniques will solve serious production problems and eliminate costly handling bottlenecks. The following table on upland cotton production indicates that a large range of fluctuation does take place from year to year and that even though this has very little effect on the migrant seasonal worker, the effect on the state's economy is of great importance.

TEXAS COTTON

Year	Acres Planted	Harvested	Yield	Bales	%Change Prev. Year
1964	6,225,000	5,675,000	348	4,123,000	
1965	5,850,000	5,565,000	402	4,668,000	+11.3
1966	4,265,000	3,968,000	385	3,182,000	-32.
1967	3,960,000	3,525,000	376	2,767,000	-11.
1968	4,450,000	4,125,000	404	3,475,000	+23.
1969	5,175,000	4,675,000	305	2,862,300	-17.5
1970	5,251,800	4,851,000	335	3,247,000	+13.
1971	5,230,700	4,700,000	263	2,579,000	-20.
1972	5,570,000	5,000,000	408	4,246,000	+63.5
1973	5,400,000	5,200,000	429	4,650,000	+9.4

Statistical Reporting Service

1973 marked the return of the sugar industry to the Lower Rio Grande Valley. Sugar cane production and its refining has emerged from cooperative research performed in the field and laboratory during the past 10 years, and cooperative financing. A new Sugar House, which Texans had not seen in 50 years, was dedicated November 11, 1973 on the line between Hidalgo and Cameron counties near the town of Santa Rosa and surrounded by cane fields. Efforts to obtain a sugar cane industry for the Valley actually began in 1969 when the Lower Rio Grande Valley Sugar Growers Association was organized. This new plant is the largest sugar mill in the United States designed to begin operations with a grinding capacity of 8,000 tons per day. Operational plans are for the entire crop of cane to be machine harvested at the rate of approximately 200 acres per day. It will be the first time in the United States for cane to be transported from the field to the mill using a container system, with each container holding ten tons of cane. The plant has a total of 523 workers of which 290 are employed in agriculture and the remainder in processing and administration.

During its first year of operation the mill received a tremendous blow in the form of an unusual hard December freeze which damaged much of the planted cane. The growers, who have signed up acreage in 100-acre blocks and have helped finance the operation, are still stunned, but they are determined to continue in order to meet next year's projections which look brighter than the original plan. This year 15,000 acres out of 25,000 original planted acres were damaged to some extent, but it is projected that 30,000 acres will be planted in 1974. Up to January 1973 the mill produced 12,000 tons of sugar and many persons feel that within 10 years the sugar cane industry will play a very important role in the development of jobs for the Lower Rio Grande Valley area. Sugar cane production for sugar and seed totaled 929,000 tons and the yield is expected to average 37.9 tons per acre and harvested acres are set at 24,500.

The economy of Texas is presently in a growth era and has the resources and ability to achieve the top position among the states with the highest percentage increases in gross product. The curve of population increase has remained steady while tourism and related activities continue to make important contributions (18,575,000 visitors in 1973 spent $1,745,465,000) and, as previously mentioned, the agricultural export picture soared to an all-time high. Overall economic development moved rapidly and with force in some areas of Texas. While the western part of the State was enjoying a job surplus situation, unemployment was again at critical levels in the Laredo and San

Benito area of the Rio Grande Valley. The high unemployment situation in this area occurs during the January to April period of the year. The demand for agricultural laborers continues its decline because of mechanization and herbicides, thus committing workers to move into skilled, white-collar, blue-collar, and service job categories. Because of the decrease in demand for unskilled agricultural labor, many workers are seeking work in nonagricultural employment.

The average monthly seasonal farm employment for Texas in 1973 totaled 81,755, which was below the monthly average of 84,930 the previous season. The total of monthly seasonal employment in major crop activities was as follows: feed and grains 22,090, cotton 18,650, vegetables 17,005 and livestock 15,640. In surveying the 1973 agricultural labor force, 6.5 percent were under 20 years of age. The number of female workers was less than 10 percent of the work force, of which the majority was white, with 87.5 percent Mexican American, 8.6 percent Negro and only .3 percent other nationalities. There were no legal foreign seasonal workers utilized in Texas.

The principal contribution to the economic growth in the State came from non-agricultural industry, and indications are that the trend will continue as the Texas Industrial Commission reports increasing numbers of out of state industries locating in Texas. The following chart indicates a continuation of the trend of increasing industrial employment matched by decreasing agricultural employment with reference to the total labor force.

TEXAS LABOR FORCE TRENDS
(annual averages)

	1960	1970	1972	1973	%Change 1960-73
Civilian Labor Force	3,600,900	4,690,000	4,936,600	5,089,900	41.8
Unemployed	189,700	167,800	176,800	158,700	
%Unemployed	5.3	3.6	3.6	3.1	
Total Employment	3,410,500	4,519,900	4,756,500	4,931,200	45.0
Emp. in Agriculture	343,000	294,800	281,300	278,000	-18.8
Emp. in Nonagri. Industry	3,067,500	4,224,200	4,475,200	4,653,200	51.0

RESUME OF PROGRAMS

Parallel with the forward march of social awareness and Civil Rights legislation has come the growth of aid and training programs to benefit the disadvantaged and the underprivileged. Regardless of the approach, the basic objective of these programs is to prepare these people to improve their economic position and make themselves more self-reliant by being able to obtain and hold better jobs. Among the target population, the seasonal and migrant farmworkers unmistakably qualify as being the group most needy and most deserving to receive the assistance and services offered by the various improvement programs. Since this unskilled work force is the most underpaid sector of any industry, since work is uncertain and sporadic, and since it has the highest percentage of its members living at and below the poverty level there is much room for improvement. It is understandable, therefore, that those migrants who are able to identify with and participate wholeheartedly in one or more of these training programs will most certainly improve their position; there are thousands who will testify to that.

The history of program development has been principally one of federal agency initiative - - that is where the money was and where the planners were. There also were the Congressmen who were aware of their constituent's needs and who could legislate relief measures to aid these identifiable needy. Thus it was that Washington was the original fount from which most programs flowed and where also program evaluations were made. There were few who doubted the inefficiency of this system of program administration or doubted that the program participants could be better served. Too often at the federal level program designers and operators were unable to relate to the other than white recipients and to understand that there is more to poverty than just being poor; changes were to come.

A consequential forward step in upgrading program efficiency was the establishment of federal regions and then the creation of Federal-Regional Councils consisting of five or six different federal agencies cooperating to assure interagency coordination. This move tended to "regionalize" programs and soon brought planning coordination with individual states to cope with their individual problems. This format coupled with the new federalism concept of revenue sharing and local administrative responsibilities is now bringing the target population into program planning as well as participation. Narrowing the gaps of time and distance through local decision making has proved very worthwhile.

Although the Texas migrants and seasonal farmworkers are considered among those with a dire need of program assistance, they paradoxically sometimes find it difficult or impossible to participate either because of their inherent mobility or their inability to qualify. It is a well known fact that all agencies have their own "definition" for a migrant so it is not surprising (but none the less difficult to understand) to find that a migrant in an O.E.O. program, for instance, fails to qualify for an equivalent Department of Labor program. This, and other similar anomalies, are more easily dealt with at the local level with local interpretation, and without doubt, result in improved delivery of services.

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Before entering into a brief discription of some of the current programs in which migrants can and do participate, mention should be made of the importance of ethnic orientation or ethnic awareness in many programs. In referring to the various programs directed at the Spanish-speaking minority it is obvious that Texas migrants are eligible for inclusion, whether mentioned or not. About five percent of the nation's population is Spanish speaking and they account for approximately ten percent of the poor. One out of four Spanish-speaking persons lives in poverty (and this includes the great majority of all migrants) compared to one in eight of the total population. Realizing that these figures cannot be improved upon by mere wishing, the government has been moving in the direction of increasing opportunities for the Spanish speaking through programs tailored to their specific needs, and this has increased migrant family involvement.

As reported in the 1973 "Manpower Report of the President" and as shown in the following table, the increase in new enrollments in federally assisted work and training programs reached a total of 3.1 million in 1972, up 27 percent from the previous year, but has been estimated to fall back to the 1971 level for the program year of FY-1973. Reasons for this decrease will be discussed further in this section.

ENROLLMENT IN FEDERALLY ASSISTED WORK AND TRAINING PROGRAMS
FISCAL YEARS 1964 and 1971-73
(thousands)

Program Identification	1964	1971	1972	1973 est.
Institutional training under MDTA	69	156	151	140
JOBS and other OJT	69	192	234	167
Vocational Rehabilitation	179	468	497	533
Neighborhood Youth Corps				
In-School and Summer		562	779	145
Out-of-School		53	65	60
Operation Mainstream		22	31	27
Public Service Careers		45	63	37
Concentrated Employment Program		77	69	58
Job Corps		50	49	49
Work Incentive Program		112	121	120
Veterans programs		76	81	79
Public Employment Program			231	97
Other programs	21	652	744	837
TOTAL	278	2,465	3,115	2,350

The MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT of 1962 is the oldest basic manpower training program and has served 1.7 million trainees over the course of the last decade. Its enrollees have been a heterogeneous group and their training experience has been both institutional and on-the-job. Under the program, trainees have received classroom instruction, remedial and skill training, supportive services and training allowances which has enabled disadvantaged and low-income persons to become more self-sustaining. All MDTA trainees in the past have been volunteers and thus far have comprised a negligible portion of the labor force, and hence the additional competitive pressure which they have exerted on wage rates has been small.

In FY 1972 there were nearly 250,000 Spanish-speaking Americans who received training or obtained jobs in manpower programs administered by the Department of Labor, a substantial increase over the 154,000 enrolled in 1970. The Spanish speaking represented 13 percent of all enrollees in manpower programs. Among the States with the high representation of Spanish-speaking people in their manpower programs in 1972 were:

PERCENTAGE OF SPANISH-SPEAKING ENROLLEES

State	Percent of Total
New Mexico	57%
Texas	53
Colorado	44
Arizona	33
California	31
New York	23

Following are the enrollment figures of Spanish speaking in selected manpower programs, as reported by the Department of Labor, during the first three quarters of the 1973 fiscal year:

SPANISH SPEAKING PARTICIPANTS IN MANPOWER PROGRAMS

Work Incentive Program (WIN)	15,300
Concentrated Employment Program (CEP)	6,900
Jobs Optional in the Private Sector (JOP)	6,900
National On-the-Job-Training (OJT)	1,700
Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS)	8,400
Public Service Careers	2,400
New Careers	500
Operation Mainstream	4,500
Public Employment Program (PEP)	11,400
NYC In-School and Summer	64,200
NYC Out-of-School	11,000
Job Corps	3,600
Institutional Training	10,300

From a modest beginning a decade ago, manpower outlays have risen $4.8 billion and the federal investments increased by $849 million for FY-1973, reaching a total of $5.1 billion. The Department of Labor accounted for $3.4 billion (66 percent) of the total manpower expenditures in fiscal 1973 and the rest came from O.E.O. and other federal agencies involved in migrant programs.

In reviewing the contribution of manpower programs to alleviate the unemployment and underemployment of the Spanish speaking, it is important to take into account the large numbers of enrollees who are in the NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH CORPS. This program has three components for two different constituencies (the In-School and Summer programs for students from grades 9 to 12 and the Out-of-school program for dropouts ages 16 to 17), and whose maximum participation is 40 hours per week including counseling and remedial education. The In-School program provides high school students with part-time work which helps them to stay in school, while the Out-of-

School program provides dropouts with work experience part of the week and skill training and education the remainder of the time, thus preparing them for on-job-training or placing them directly in jobs. Summer-Vacation-Jobs provides job training and income during the summer months. The NYC provides its participants with short-term work experience and badly needed earnings, but its primary function is to encourage continued school attendance and make it possible. NYC In-School and Summer program enrollees totaled 407,000 in mid-year of 1970 and 667,000 at mid-year of 1972 which proves both the need for the program and its popularity. The overall effectiveness, however, of NYC programs in moving youthful students into stable and satisfying employment is difficult to assess because of the great variation in aptitude and educational achievement among different enrollees and the problem of gathering reliable follow-up data.

The HIGH SCHOOL EQUIVALENCY PROGRAM (HEP) is designed to assist school dropouts from migrant families to return to school and reach a high school level. The average stay of the enrollees in the programs has been five months, after which the student receives a General Educational Diploma (GED) on passing his exams. This program is also available to migrant parents and other adults who want to go back to school. About 5 percent of HEP graduates enter college and about two percent graduate. The program has been particularly significant to a sizeable number of Mexican American migrants who have one of the highest dropout rates of any ethnic group. In Texas, more than 80 percent of such students quit school before they graduate. HEP is operated on 15 college campuses around the nation and each is equipped to handle about 50 students.

The JOB CORPS is another manpower program which serves only deprived and disadvantaged youths under 22 years of age and which is designed to provide enrollees with remedial education, counseling services, and training in job skills which will be transferable to the labor market and will upgrade their employability. During fiscal 1972, some 5,400 disadvantaged youth of Spanish background were enrolled in Job Corps centers and received occupational training and other intensive services in bilingual, multicultural programs. Job Corps (of which there are 71 centers) has served 325,000 men and women since its beginning in 1965 through programs operated by State and Federal agencies, universities and nonprofit organizations. Enrollees receive room and board, medical and dental care, clothing, and living allowances of $30 for the first months and up to $50 thereafter.

It is reported by the Secretary of Labor that the Job Corps recorded the best six months in its nine-year history in placing disadvantaged youths in jobs, and that during the last half of 1973, 70 percent of those leaving the Job Corps were employed at an average starting pay of $2.23 an hour.

Extensive changes in the original WORK INCENTIVE (WIN) Program for welfare recipients were made in mid-1973 after much needed welfare reform was voiced by the public. WIN-II is administered by the Manpower Administration of the Department of Labor and is operated at the local level by State Employment Service offices. Federal funds have been increased to cover 90 percent of the cost of WIN-II services, compared to 80 percent of the cost of manpower activities and 75 percent for supportive services and child care which the Federal Government assumed in the past. The original WIN Program which enrolled over 400,000 persons in a 4-year period, was only able to move a modest number of its participants into stable employment. Unlike its predecessor, the current WIN-II Program seeks to reduce dependency by referring persons receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) directly into productive job experience. However, referral to skill training and supportive services continues, pending final job placement. In comparison to the voluntary nature of the original program, all persons receiving AFDC must

participate in WIN-II, except those in underage and hardship exempted categories. During fiscal 1973 and estimated 1.5 million AFDC recipients registered for training, other manpower services, and employment under the new WIN-II Program. Both WIN-I and WIN-II have sought to maintain this incentive to work by permitting women on AFDC to retain, without any reduction to their benefits, the first $30 of monthly earning, plus one-third of the remainder to cover work-related expenses.

The JOB OPPORTUNITIES IN THE BUSINESS SECTOR (JOBS) Program is a joint effort of the Federal Government and employers in private industry to place disadvantaged persons over age 18 in jobs through the use of on-the-job-training and supportive services. The project is administered by the National Alliance of Businessmen and the government bears the cost of these services and also helps the participating companies with the training costs. The JOBS program, which had as its goal the placing of 500,000 disadvantaged persons in skilled employment within 3 years, was introduced during the very tight labor markets of the late 1960's when the recruitment of workers was slow and difficult. By the end of June 1970, the NAB and the Department of Labor reported that 494,000 trainees had been hired but the retention rate was only 47 percent.

When an investigation of the impact of JOBS on the employment and earnings of enrollees was conducted, findings showed that not only detailed and required information on trainees was not being reported, but also that the number of persons reported by NAB as hired by firms frequently exceeded the number actually hired. In a surprising number of cases the reported hired number of disadvantaged was further distorted because employers themselves certified trainees instead of referring them to the Employment Service for certification. As a result, a significant number of applicants were hired who were not actually disadvantaged. The manner in which data was collected as well as the monitoring of training operations seems to have been perfunctory, at least in the early stages of the program. There were instances of over-payments which could have been prevented and the investigation emphasized that many of the positions filled under the program were jobs which traditionally have high turnover rates generally filled by low skilled laborers. With this background and the fact that other programs contain more effective placement services and follow up, there is a real possibility that JOBS will be phased out soon.

The largest manpower program designed primarily to assist Spanish-speaking people is Operation SERVICE, EMPLOYMENT, REDEVELOPMENT (SER) which was conceived in 1965 in Houston, Texas, by civic leaders of the two largest national Spanish-speaking organizations, the League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC) and the American GI Forum. The project, which develops programs to meet local needs and resources, is beamed directly at disadvantaged Mexican Americans, including migrants, who live in the five southwestern states. The first efforts to carry out this project were made possible by personal contributions and it was not until the program proved feasible that federal funds became available. From 1966, when it operated in two Texas cities, to 1973 SER has jumped from a half-million funding level, to a $20-million national operation in 45 communities.

As a national manpower effort for Spanish-speaking Americans, SER has come a long way since 1965, when it was born as a job placement service to people in the Houston and Corpus Christi barrios. In Texas alone, SER now has projects in 10 major cities which provide basic education, citizenship preparation, pre-vocational and vocational training.

In 1973, SER was recognized for its outstanding achievements in the area of manpower development and according to statistics released by the Department of Labor's Manpower Administration, SER's, performance was ranked first among all Manpower Programs. The program has a current national $993-cost per placement and an excellent performance record, making SER one of the most economical manpower programs in the nation.

Under the aegis of the MDTA, SER began operation as a National Categorical Program, funded by the Department of Labor and sub-contracting with local projects throughout the southwest to reach its goal of permanent and rewarding employment. In fiscal 1973-74 SER was not funded as a National Categorical Program, but instead received only a grant to provide technical assistance. Nevertheless, SER emerged strongly to continue with 45 projects under Revenue Sharing.

The NATIONAL MIGRANT WORKER PROGRAM, originally known as the "Last Yellow Bus", was announced by the Department of Labor in mid-1971 as a multimillion dollar comprehensive effort to assist a projected 5,500 migrants and their families to "settle out" of the migrant stream and take permanent, year-round employment. The original plan included program efforts in both the migrant home base areas and the work areas which were assigned a prescribed number of individuals and a proportionate amount of the allocated funds. The funds that were approved for this program amounted to $20.2 million and were to be applied in the following manner:

AREA 1	Individuals	Funding
The Great Lake States	300	1.2 million
AREA 2		
Western & Rocky Mountain States	1,200	3.7
AREA 3		
Southern & East Coast States	1,500	4.3
AREA 4		
Texas	2,800	7.1
Staff, R & D and Administration		3.9
	5,800	$20.2 million

From the program's inception, with its ill chosen original title, there was confusion and misunderstanding as to what should be included in the training and services to be provided and the "how" of getting the job done. More than a year went by before any local programs were approved for Texas. From a group of seventeen prospectuses submitted by potential program sponsors five were accepted by the State Migrant Review Committee as follows:

	Trainees	Funding	Termination Date
SAN ANTONIO: (Bexas, Atascosa, Frio, Medina and Wilson counties)	180	$ 493,400	May, 1974
RIO GRANDE CITY: (Starr and Zapata counties)	54	156,500	Oct., 1973
DEL RIO: (Dimmit, LaSalle, Maverick, Uvalde Val Verde and Zavala counties)	151	527,000	Feb., 1974
LAREDO: (Webb county)	152	389,500	Dec., 1973
ROBSTOWN & CORPUS CHRISTI: (Duval, Jim Wells, Kleberg, Nueces and San Patricio counties)	105	375,000	Dec., 1973
	642	$1,941,400	

Later a sixth program, with termination date of February 1974, was approved for the city of Edinburg to serve participants from Hidalgo and Willacy counties. With the inclusion of this program the total allocation reached somewhat more than two million dollars which, although being a substantial sum, is less than a third of the amount that was to be spent in Texas for the benefit of its migrants.

When this program became operational it involved the Departments of Labor and Health, Education and Welfare in administration and funding and the TEA and TEC in operation, continuity and placement. Final evaluation of the total program will involve these same agencies and indications at the end of 1973 were that final reports will be far from encouraging and that the whole program will be filed away.

Many settle-out projects for migrant farmworkers rely heavily on the MOBILITY FACILITATOR UNIT (MFU) concept which was conceived and implemented by the Rural Manpower Service for the purpose of helping migratory workers move out of the migrant stream into permanent nonfarm jobs. The MFUs operate on the assumption that the in-stream settling-out of migrants will provide a wider distribution of an available work force throughout the country and aid in stabilizing worker economy. The program has been in oepration since the Fall of 1971 as an integral subdivision of the National Migrant Worker Program and has served approximately 500 migrant families through 1973.

Since mechanization and other factors continue to reduce migrant farm jobs the implication is very obvious; migrants must be channeled into the nonfarm economy or they will find themselves without a means of support. This means jobs and preparation for those jobs. The traditional role of the Rural Manpower Service has not included preparing and assisting workers to make the transition from farm to nonfarm work but here the RMS faced a challenge. Associated with the transition is the need for supportive services and this means the establishment of multiple agency projects since some supportive services are offered by several agencies and other needed services are not offered by any agency. The coordinating effort in this task, thus became the basis for the MFU concept to be implemented by the RMS.

The state employment agencies in six states (Colorado, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, Utah and Wisconsin) received grants from the Department of Labor to operate MFUs and all but Ohio opted to contract with local migrant organizations to serve as prime sponsors in operating the projects. Since the target population is mainly Mexican American the initial contact and the program explanation is made by bilingual personnel. Remedial and basic education are offered before training is initiated, then the enrollees have a choice of automobile mechanics, carpentry, appliance repair, furniture refinishing as well as several careers for women. It is hoped that this approach to settling-out training will prove out on evaluation and be continued despite the imminent termination of the NMWP.

In conclusion it can be said that 1973 was a very disturbing year programwise. The period can be aptly described as one of confused change made more difficult by indecision, with program directors looking accusingly at Washington. Being perfectly candid about the 1973 situation, frustration caused by foot dragging, policy and program direction changes, funding delays and priority juggling at the federal level, is impossible to ignore and was reflected directly in poor program results. The year appeared to roll along fueled more by capriciousness than by law and logic. The proposed dismantling of the Office of Economic Opportunity threw all of that agency's Title III-B migrant programs into limbo and it remains now for Congress to decide the future role, if any, O.E.O. will

assume. The administration, acting by executive fiat, impounded previously appropriated funds thus leaving many program directors stranded in midstream and as equally bewildered as their program participants. The Department of Labor, which eventually inherited most of the on-going migrant programs, underwent top level reorganization which left the ten regional offices without directors for a period of several months resulting in delay and confusion at both the regional and local levels. If there is any good to come out of last year's confusion, it might be the realization that the needy program participant is the one most hurt by it.

Another migrant oriented program that got under way in Texas last year was MANPOWER, EDUCATION AND TRAINING, Inc. (MET). This non-profit organization was awarded a $2 million contract in 1972 to establish a residential training center in East Texas and develop a training program to eventually serve 275 Mexican American migrant families from Laredo and Eagle Pass. After the MET proposal was funded ($900,000 from the Department of Labor and $1.1 million from the O.E.O.) the program administrators chose the tiny East Texas town of Goodrich as the location for their experimental community and training facility and ground breaking took place in July of 1972. Less than a year later, on June 13th to be exact, the facilities and the 41 mobile home units were very nearly destroyed when water from the flooding Trinity river near by rose to as much as seven feet inside the permanent structures and the majority of the homes.

The program structure was designed for "entire family involvement" in education and training with job placement and relocation following. Mothers were to be given basic education along with nutritional and health studies by teachers and a full time nurse. The flood hit just as the first full-term class was about to graduate. At year's end most of the insurance claims had been pretty much settled but the clean up and refurbishing was far from complete. Considering the work yet to be done and the need for additional emergency funds a 1974 migrant program is far from certain although undoubtedly the MET's black training programs in other areas will continue.

ALIEN LABOR AND IMMIGRATION

A. ALIEN LABOR:

To review alien labor and immigration is to examine two inseparable and interrelated subjects which have played a leading role in the historic developments of today's migrant farmworkers. For someone to be an "alien" means that they are foreign born, and for them to be employed in the United States requires that they be immigrated. Prior to the 1880's America's national policy tended to encourage immigration in order to continue its growth pattern which, combined with the dream of a better life and religious freedom, caused emigrants to come to this country in increasing numbers in search of opportunity and fortune. These alien visitors eventually found their places in commerce and industry or laboring in the mines and fields. Until recently this latter work area, that of the hired farmworker, has absorbed thousands upon thousands of foreigners. These workers, immigrating permanently or temporarily, were mostly from our neighboring country to the south and in general were land oriented and poorly educated. These aliens and the "instant citizens" that were created when Mexico's northwest territory became the U.S.'s southwest in 1848, were the forerunners of our Texas migrants who continue to make their living such as it is, in the fields of our nation.

The movement of Mexican aliens across their northern border was alternately ebb and flow (depending in great part on the political and economic climate of Mexico) until the labor squeeze of World War II when it became all a northward flow. Special legislation was passed in 1943 to facilitate the entry of farmworkers from Mexico and the West Indies on a temporary basis to lend a much needed hand in land working and crop harvesting. At the close of 1947 this emergency legislation came to an end, but not so with the labor emergency, so the two countries sat many months at the negociating table in an effort to formulate an equitable and workable labor transfer plan. The labors of the joint commission produced Public Law 78, the Bracero Act of 1951, which was to remain in effect until December of 1964. The following table illustrates the surge of temporary workers from Mexico and its relation with the British West Indians and Canadians.

Table I

Foreign Workers Admitted for Temporary Employment in U.S. Agriculture
By Year and Nationality

Year	Total	Mexican	B.W.I.'s	Canadians
1951	203,640	192,000	9,040	2,600
1957	452,205	436,049	8,171	7,300
1963	209,218	186,865	12,930	8,500
1965	25,871	20,284	10,917	4,670
1967	23,603	6,125	13,578	3,900
1969	15,830	0	13,530	2,300
1970	17,474	0	15,470	2,004
1971	13,684	0	12,143	1,541
1972	12,526	0	11,419	1,107

Farm Labor Department, U.S. Department of Labor

The need for alien labor in agriculture continues but of late it seems to have stabilized at about 40,000 plus man-months per year, as is shown in Table II. Whether the need is real or implied there will, nevertheless, always be recruting and contracting of foreign field hands and it is hoped that this orderly system of labor procurement may eventually help combat the rising tide of illegal entrants which will be discussed in section "D".

Table II

Estimated Man-Months of Employment of Foreign Contract Workers
Thousands of man-months

Year	Total	Mexicans	B.W.I.'s	Canadians
1965	103.6	26.5	72.0	5.1
1967	57.7	7.1	46.7	3.8
1969	44.0	.0	42.2	1.8
1970	48.4	.0	42.6	5.8
1971	38.4	.0	35.3	3.1
1972	42.5	.0	38.5	4.0

B. IMMIGRATION :

While international negociations brought forth the Bracero Program concerned with alien agricultural workers, lengthy Congressional deliberations and debate were giving form and substance to the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952. This much needed and comprehensive document regulated all of the aspects of immigration that were thought to require controls at that time - Western Hemisphere immigration was not included, nor was it until over a decade later. The imperative need to bring order to an increasingly unfair and near chaotic situation resulted in a new

Table III

Immigrants Admitted from the Western Hemisphere, 1965-73

Year Ending June 30	Total	Canada	Mexico	Central America	Caribbean	South America
1965	157,264	38,327	37,969	12,423	37,583	30,962
1967	156,312	23,442	42,371	8,709	65,273	16,517
1969	156,220	18,582	44,623	9,692	59,395	23,928
1971	160,733	13,128	50,103	8,626	68,176	20,700
1972	163,734	10,776	64,040	8,125	61,434	19,359
1973	173,123	8,951	70,141	8,803	64,893	20,335

immigration law in 1965 that fixed a quota of 120,000 persons per year allowable from our hemisphere neighbors, with the further stipulation that not more than 40,000 be admitted from any one country. Table III shows the trends in immigration from that date; e.g. Canada and Mexico started out about even but now Mexico is double what it was and Canada is less than a fourth of what it was at that time. The reason the total figures exceed the 1965 fixed quota is due to the non-quota entries of parents, spouses and under age children of U.S. citizens.

These trends become more apparent in the following comparison which proves that in spite of Canada's decline the total share of the three areas shown now represents 83% of the Western Hemisphere's immigration whereas a decade ago it was only 70%; thus Central and South America are proportionately reduced.

Percentage Trends of Principal Western Hemisphere Immigrating Areas

Year	Canada	Mexico	Caribbean	% of Total
1964	27%	23%	21%	71%
1966	19%	29%	28%	76%
1969	12%	29%	38%	79%
1970	9%	30%	40%	79%
1971	8%	31%	42%	81%
1972	6%	39%	37%	82%
1973	5%	40%	38%	83%

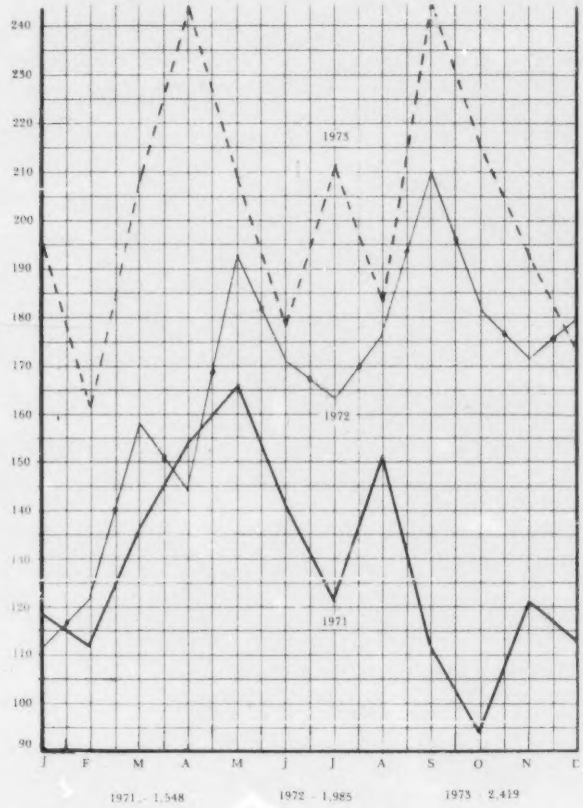
The basic stability of yearly totals shown for the Western Hemisphere in Table III is mirrored in the worldwide total, which varies from 375-400,000 persons per year, and it is interesting to note that the occupational classifications likewise remain relatively constant.

Occupational Group:	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	Ave.
Professional, Technical and kindred	11%	10%	12%	13%	13%	10%	12%
Housewives, children with no occupation	54	56	58	59	59	61	58
All others	35	34	30	28	28	30	30

In addition to the stated quotas, the section of the 1965 law which directly affects our Texas farmworkers, states that the Secretary of Labor must "certify" permanent visa applications before the consular service can issue such a visa. This requirement, in effect, denies visas to unskilled aliens who would be in job competition with citizen farmworkers since the Secretary must certify that: 1) there are not sufficient workers available for the work who are "able, willing and qualified", and 2) that the employment of such aliens will not "adversely affect" the wages and working conditions of U.S. workers similarly employed. If, therefore, the burden of eligibility determination or certification falls on the Department of Labor then it follows that the Texas Employment Commission would have a definite part to play in this immigrational procedure.

As every variable connected with immigration, both legal and illegal, seems to be on the increase, it comes as no surprise that the Texas Employment Commission's participation in processing alien applications for legal entry into the United States continues to increase. Despite the monthly irregularities, as can be seen on the following graph, the yearly totals show a uniform increase of 400 plus applications each year being routed through the complicated process of checks and considerations that leads eventually to approval or rejection.

ALIEN APPLICATIONS PROCESSED BY
THE TEXAS EMPLOYMENT COMMISSION



Being completely forthright, however, one might wonder how and why the Texas Employment Commission became involved in an area that at one time belonged exclusively to the Department of Justice. Since the latter part of the 19th Century, the Department of Justice has been the overseer of our immigration policy, its application and enforcement, and during this entire history there has been a sort of mutual assistance agreement with the Department of State and its worldwide network of Embassies and Consulates. The 1965 amendment to the immigration law altered somewhat that relationship by bringing the Department of Labor into the picture to handle the logistics of the new "labor certification" requirement. This brought into play the regional and local offices of the State Employment Service Agency (SESA), as a liaison partner with the Departments of Justice and State, hence TEC's activity. Since the subject under consideration involves aliens, immigration and employment it is obvious that the two states with by far the heaviest case load of applicants are Texas and California.

The sequential order of the steps that must be taken and the paper travel necessary for a Texas employer to legally hire an alien goes somewhat as follows. First, there must be a job that needs filling--a "job order" that requires a worker or employee. Notification of this job opening must be made to the local employment service office (SESA), which in the present case means the Texas Employment Commission. The wages and benefits must be clearly spelled out so as to show no "adverse effect" that might tend to depress local earnings for this type of work. This requires the filling out of a request-for-worker form (750-A) by the potential employer and, since most all employers have in mind an alien they want to fill the job, the potential employee fills out a companion form (750-B) requesting permission to take the job offered. Concurrent with the agency's search of its files it is necessary that the employer advertise the job opening and wages in order to comply with the "no local workers available who are able, willing and qualified" section of the certification requirement of the Department of Labor.

If the advertising effort produces no employee interest and if the local office files reveal no job seekers "able, willing and qualified" then a transmittal memo (Form E-37) explaining the circumstances is filled out and sent to the state office in Austin where it is processed and recorded. The cases are then divided into "farm" and "nonfarm" and the requests for a farmworker or an agricultural job are sent directly to Washington for final processing while all others are sent to the regional office in Dallas for certification or rejection. It should be mentioned that for every farm request there are approximately twenty nonfarm requests.

The TEC records show that, on an average, only 20 percent of the agricultural-oriented applications are approved and certified and all have a proven skill, such as farm equipment mechanics, dairymen, master ginners, horse trainers, etc., while 80 percent of all others (nonfarm) are certified. This indicates that, unless the agricultural worker/applicant is a specialist of sorts and none can be found locally, relatively few aliens (only one percent, or one-fifth of 5 percent of total applicants) are being legally admitted to occupy farm jobs in Texas--which is as it should be.

C. COMMUTERS:

To our border population "commuter" and "commuter status" are very familiar words, but to the rest of the nation the words have had very little meaning until recently. However, with the civil rights activities, the War on Poverty, and the investigations by the Subcommittee on Migratory Labor the public has become aware that the border areas are unmistakably different from the rest of the nation and with very distinct problems; one of which is the unique commuter situation.

To the general public a working commuter is a person with residence in Mexico who works over here. However, only "aliens" living in Mexico can legally be referred to as commuters. Neither the U.S. citizen who lives in Mexico nor the alien who lives and works in the United States is a commuter. This situation is further compounded by the fact that most alien commuters have family or friends on this side of the border and it is not uncommon that they give the U.S. addresses as reference for their employers. Therefore, a worker employed in the United States can appear to be a commuter and not actually be one, and vice versa, depending on which status he wishes to assume.

Like all immigrants, the commuter must apply for and receive a permanent resident visa in accordance with the regulations of the Immigration and Nationality Act. Once a registration

receipt card, Form I-151, is issued, the applicant becomes a "green-carder" (referring to the color of the original I-151 cards) and is permitted to work in the United States and live anywhere he pleases. The commuter then, as defined by the Board of Immigration Appeals, becomes "an alien admitted to the United States for permanent residence and although living in a foreign country is permitted to enter the United States as a resident alien to work or seek work", and thus obtains commuter status. Regulations stipulate that the commuter must be involved in work that is "permanent and stable", and if he is out of work for six months he automatically loses his commuter status. In actual practice, however, the permanent and stable requirement is seldom enforced, in order to accommodate alien agricultural workers whose work is seasonal and periodic. This reasoning is something difficult to understand since it is this group of unskilled workers that is of greatest concern to Texas farmworkers in the border areas. Another cause for concern is that although Texas has only one quarter of the registered green carders along the entire border she has half of the border commuters, meaning more than her share of job displacement.

The Alien Address Regulation requires all aliens on U.S. soil to register each year, during the month of January, at the nearest post office. In 1973 the number of alien registrants totaled 4.64 million of which 4.13 million (89%) were green carders of all nationalities and among our close neighbors were 823,300 Mexicans, 415,500 Canadians, and 310,200 Cubans. The figure for Mexicans is approximately a 42,000 increase over 1972, almost all of which came over as "immediate relatives". Of the total Mexican permanent resident aliens who registered, 438,000 (53%) were in California and 229,000 (28%) were in Texas, thus these two states host over 80% of the legally immigrated Mexicans in the United States.

Although the above statistics are forthcoming every year and help us to understand the overall immigration picture there is no data break-out for commuters, nor is an accurate one possible. As one would expect, the total number of commuters is constantly changing and since simple head counts involve entirely too many variables, the Immigration and Naturalization Service makes little attempt to maintain up-to-date statistics on them. However, it has been established by means of several isolated counts that the average of total commuters working in four principal occupational groups along the border are roughly; 40% in agricultural, 30% in sales and services, 20% in industry, and 10% in the building trades. These percentages in the occupational mix have varied little in recent years and no change is anticipated. Other spot data from the I&NS shows that California uses three times as many agriculture commuters as does Texas, that Texas uses three times as many industrial commuters as California, that Texas has four times as many commuters in the building trades as do California and Arizona together, and that the over all commuter movement breaks down to 50% crossing into Texas, 37% entering California, and 13% into Arizona. Further, it has been determined that although Texas and California both grow labor intense crops in their border areas, Texas, due to a large domestic labor pool does not have to rely on agricultural commuters as does California. As would be expected, Southern California employs more commuters in farm work than any other area of the border.

Even though neighboring aliens have been commuting to jobs across both borders since the boundaries were first established, the future of the commuting concept is far from clear at this time. Opinions concerning commuter labor are varied and often times conflicting and an answer to what to do about the situation is long overdue. Organized labor has always opposed the fact that foreigners are permitted to hold jobs that should be held by U.S. citizens. To labor, the situation has become even more untenable since Mexico's Border Industry Program (although announced in 1965 it really did not get started until 1968) has attracted so many U.S. firms to establish labor intense branches

across the border, thus employing local Mexicans to do work that Americans used to do in the stateside plants. On the other hand, border area employers like the low cost commuter labor and the border merchants are pleased that so much of commuter earnings is spent over here.

At present, there are legislative proposals; there are bills stalled in committee and bills yet to be written; there is lobbying and much debate, but so far there is nothing tangible on which to predict the future of the commuter question. However, one thing is certain, that writing legislation for two such dissimilar border situations as Mexico and Canada is going to be far from simple. It is hoped that this matter will soon evolve into a national issue and some decisions be made, but since Congress has so many important matters to consider it is impossible to guess just "how soon" it will be.

D. ILLEGAL ENTRANTS:

As each year passes the matter of persons unlawfully entering the United States becomes increasingly more important and a solution to the problem becomes increasingly more urgent. As current figures in this section will show, the basic problem is with Mexican nationals and, while a once-and-for-all solution is being sought by the two governments, the problem continues to grow beyond already unbelievable proportions. How can our enforcement people cope with a work load that doubles every three years? By the time increased funds have been debated and approved for the I&NS, by the time additional staff has been recruited and trained, the whole effort appears to be almost futile as the number of illegals from Mexico continues to rise.

The two vigilance and enforcement arms of the Service, the Border Patrol and the Investigations Division, last year apprehended and expelled a total of 656,000 illegal immigrants of worldwide origin which is a 30% increase over 1972. Of this total 577,000, or 88%, were Mexicans. Of the worldwide increase of 150,000 over the 1972 total, 147,000, or 98%, proved to be immediate neighbors from Mexico, thus year after year their proportionate contribution to our burgeoning problem of illegal entrants increases. When will it end? Just five years ago in 1968 the Mexican share of total illegals located was 71% and this year it was 88%, so there is no doubt where the Service's enforcement emphasis is being placed. What a few years ago was a trickle of Mexicans sneaking into the U.S., has now grown to a rising flood that shows no signs of cresting much less of ebbing. The following figures showing total Mexicans and their percentage of total illegals vividly points out the need to halt this alarming trend of unlawful immigration from Mexico.

1964	— 42,000	= 50%		1970	— 277,000	= 80%
1966	— 92,000	= 65%		1971	— 348,000	= 83%
1968	— 151,700	= 71%		1972	— 430,000	= 85%
		1973	— 577,000	= 88%		

Many of the illegal Mexican aliens no longer stop near the border to work a few days on farms before returning home, instead they head on to the large metropolitan areas where wages are higher and chances of being caught are less. They know that the best in wages and working conditions is in the nation's interior, away from the border, so that is their destination. Thus it can be said that illegal immigration from Mexico now has a social and economic impact, not only in the border areas of the Southwest as it was in the past, but in virtually all regions of the nation.

Several years ago illegal entry was an individual, do-it-yourself project in the towns along the border. In Texas it was just a case of the poor Mexican farmworker tying his clothes on top of his head and, along with a companion or two at the most, wading the Rio Grande. Rarely was it necessary for the "wetbacks" to even get their backs wet, if they knew where to cross. Now, however, sophisticated smuggling operations recruiting their clients from far inside Mexico, offer package deals which can include border jumping guidance, time and place pick up and transportation, temporary lodging at destination and, for an additional fee, fake papers for those who feel they might need them. So north they go hidden in car trunks, concealed under false crates, crammed in campers, trucks and rental vans of all sizes sometimes transporting as many as fifty pieces of human cargo in one load. The use of rental equipment is frequent since it can be abandoned with no loss if caught and the identity of the renter is difficult to trace.

This illegal traffic is now almost more than the Border Patrol can cope with. Although trying valiantly to stem the flow with new detection technologies developed for the war in Vietnam, more surface and air patroling and more use of informers, the battle is not being won.

Work Load of the BORDER PATROL
(figures in thousands)

	1960	1965	1970	1971	1972	1973
Conveyances Examined	1,659	1,172	1,792	2,024	2,473	2,666
Persons Questioned	6,190	5,285	6,805	7,664	9,024	9,507
Narcotics Seizures	$52	$393	$3,865	$5,379	$11,708	$23,464

No one can estimate accurately how many Mexicans enter the country and avoid detection, but authorities on the international movement of people recognize it as one of the largest uncontrolled migrations of modern times. Immigration officials often use a simple rule of thumb to approximate total illegal entries; for every alien apprehended, another escapes detection. If that is true today, more than a half million Mexicans who entered illegally last year are still "unlocated". That would be more than the total number of immigrants who entered the United States legally from all of the countries of the world, including Mexico, and would qualify as the largest migration into the U.S. since the early years of this century.

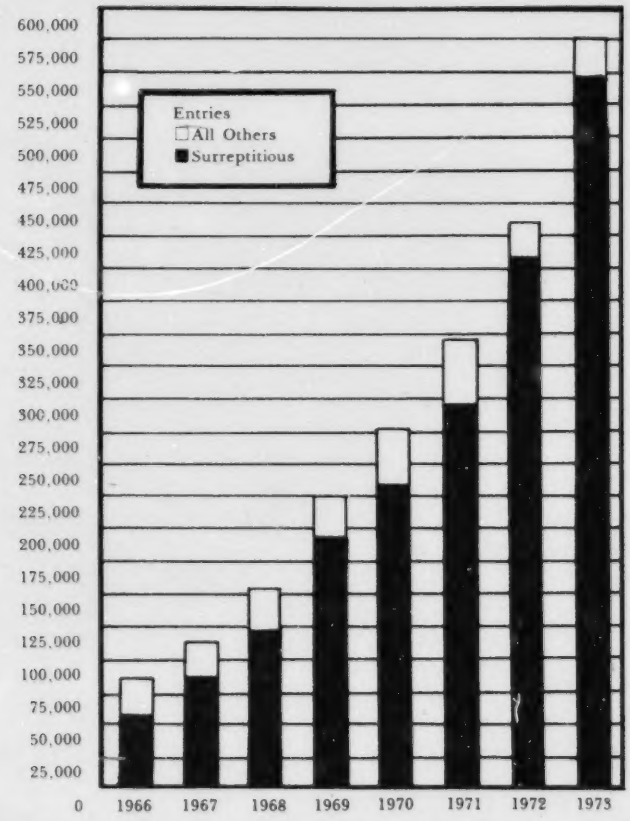
Table IV

ILLEGAL ALIENS LOCATED BY THE BORDER PATROL
Selected Years Ending June 30

	1960	1965	1970	1971	1972	1973
Deportable Aliens Located	28,966	52,422	231,116	302,517	373,896	503,936
Mexican Aliens	22,687	44,161	219,254	290,152	355,099	480,588
Canadian Aliens	4,645	5,795	7,786	7,512	8,245	8,669
All Others	1,634	2,466	4,076	4,853	6,151	8,866
Smugglers of Aliens Located	330	525	3,298	3,814	4,564	6,355
Aliens Previously Expelled	9,374	13,955	67,440	90,402	115,758	152,441

Table IV indicates that the Border Patrol's case load has more than doubled in a mere three years which is another proof of the seriousness of the situation. In like manner, the unbelievable volume of apprehended illegals does not permit the U.S. judicial authorities time to carry out the stipulated deportation proceedings in the majority of cases. A program of "voluntary departures" has been developed, which simply means that the alien is taken by bus back into Mexico. Due note is made of this "departure" and it becomes a part of his record but is not as damaging as if had been actually tried and issued a formal order of deportation. Illegal entry followed by a voluntary return after being caught constitutes a misdemeanor which carries no criminal sanction. After an official deportation, a second offense can be considered a felony which can result in imprisonment; this the border jumpers are aware of and make every effort to avoid facing such a situation.

DEPORTABLE MEXICAN ALIENS
FOUND IN THE UNITED STATES
1966-1973



To carry out its statutory obligations of immigration control, both legal and illegal, and to welcome and process visitors and returning citizens to our land (near a quarter of a billion last year) through almost one thousand ports of entry, the I&NS finds itself hard pressed staffwise. Of a total Service force of 7,000 there are some 1,700 Border Inspectors at ports of entry, a like number of Border Patrolmen and about 1,000 plain clothed Investigators. The border inspectors denied entry

to 380,000 aliens last year which was indirectly a great relief for the patrolmen and the investigators since it is logically more effective to deny entry to an undesirable alien than to try to locate and deport him after he is already in. The Investigations Division, which is the principal deterrent against the incursion of illegals into our urban centers, last year located 124,000 deportable aliens - a record. This figure, about one-fifth of the total deportables, shows that this division of the Service is becoming more effective every year as its share of apprehensions continues upwards.

For American employers seeking low-skill and low-cost workers, hiring the illegal alien is a very effective way of assuring profits. To them the foreign migrant represents a faceless, non-union labor force which they can use whenever they want, as long as they want, and still feel free of any responsibility. At the present time there is no penalty for hiring illegal aliens in Texas nor is there any obligation for the employers to determine the citizenship of their workers. A possible remedy for this long standing problem may be contained in a bill (HB-982, co-sponsor Rep. Rodino) which is before the Senate Judiciary Committee. Already passed by the House, the so-called Rodino Bill would amend the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952 to provide penalties for those employers who knowingly employ aliens. The first offense would bring a warning from the U.S. Attorney General. The second offense could result in a $500 fine for each alien employed. The third offense could result in criminal prosecution and bring about a fine of $1,000. and/or a year in jail. The key word in the Congressional measure now under consideration is that of "knowingly" employing an alien. How does one prove that a person knowingly does anything? A farmer, rancher or other employer could simply require each employee to sign a statement that he is a U.S. citizen and if the statement proved later to be false the employer had nevertheless complied with his obligation under the law. It is doubtful if any one law could solve the problem completely and still be equitable, but a start must be made. It is hoped that this bill will soon come before a Conference Committee for final consideration and vote.

Many Americans share the feelings and understand the plight of the underemployed and underprivileged Mexican who is in the United States to improve his lot and whose only crime is being on the wrong side of the border. Nevertheless, the first obligation of the U.S. government must be to provide protection for its citizens and their economic security by the enactment and enforcement of needed laws and statutes, since this important area of immigration is within Congressional purview and determination.

CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS

For the past several years this Commission has reported on current developments with the intent to provide updated information on matters that pertain to our Texas migrant farmworker and his family. Among the topics to be included in this section will be some recent developments in Mexican American affairs since our migrants, in ethnic make-up, are almost entirely Mexican American. As in recent years the important areas of interest we have chosen to consider are education, housing and health.

A. EDUCATION:

This Commission continues to review the efforts made in the field of migrant education and programs for the Spanish speaking by reporting general resource material that has been obtained from educational conferences and workshops as well as impressions and conclusions from persons in various educational fields.

When the day arrives that seasonal farm jobs for migrant workers become more scarce, Texas will have an untrained work force of approximately 150,000 people of working age for which no jobs will exist. This brings us to an urgent and pressing need of the migrant; education. The migrant needs basic education and/or vocational training that will prepare him for a skilled vocation, either on a year-round basis or for seasonal work that will dovetail with his migratory farm activities. Education is of the utmost importance in breaking the cycle of ignorance and vocational unpreparedness of the migrant; this is true of the adult and of the children. Although some children of migrant families have remained in school and eventually acquired sufficient education to enter vocations requiring knowledge and skill, the majority have not had this privilege. On the average, they find themselves unable to keep up with the other children and eventually become drop-outs and follow along with their parents on the yearly migrations. As they in turn reach maturity, they are prepared only for unskilled farm work, usually speak little English, and thus the cycle continues.

Among the obstacles that in the past have frustrated efforts on the part of educators to induce the migrant parents to keep their children in school, has been that of the economic necessity of their contributing to the meager earnings of the parents. Even parents who would prefer to leave their children in school usually contend that without these additional earnings they would be even less able to pay their bills on returning to home base.

Another obstacle sometimes encountered is that of apathy on the part of the parents toward education. The father is usually more inclined to be apathetic toward school than the mother. Being hard-pressed to earn enough for even a subsistent living, and often never having been to school himself, he finds it easy to take the position that what's good enough for him is good enough for his children. The mother is frequently more anxious to see her children receive an education, but more often than not she is unable to sway the father. Happily, this situation is becoming more infrequent and the last decade has seen a marked change in parental attitude characterized by parental involvement in migrant child education. Credit for this encouraging circumstance should be shared by the educators and the parents alike. Parental participation in the education process, from planning to performance, has proved its worth in all other areas so why shouldn't it do likewise in the area of migrant education?

The Texas Child Migrant Program:

The Texas Education Agency for the 1972-73 school year, made special attempts to meet the needs of nearly 55,000 children of migratory farmworkers who participated in migrant programs operated in 151 school districts in Texas. Of the 151 school districts serving migrants, 133 operated enrichment programs only and all others offered both enrichment and extended day seven month school terms. As is illustrated by the following two charts, the increase in the number of migrant students participating in migrant programs for 1973 is 15 times as large as it was in 1963 when the T.E.A. first designed its long range program. As can be seen, there has also been a dramatic upsurge in the number of districts operating migrant programs over the same ten year period.

STUDENTS PARTICIPATING		DISTRICTS PARTICIPATING	
1964	3,668	1964	5
1965	6,500	1965	10
1966	20,083	1966	40
1967	16,769	1967	40
1968	18,843	1968	45
1969	31,779	1969	64
1970	37,048	1970	73
1971	43,632	1971	99
1972	48,848	1972	123
1973	54,661	1973	151

The Texas Child Migrant Program is a direct outgrowth of Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) which provided federal funds to state educational departments and is an essential part of public school education in Texas. The program, which received a funding total of $12,037,373 in 1973, has two basic structures, the Seven Month School Program and the Enrichment Program, which were specifically designed to help educationally deprived migrant children.

The T.C.M.P is operated in Kindergarten, Grade 1-12 and a special Migrant Preschool for four year olds. The basic goal of the program is to offer the migrant child a comprehensive and total educational program that will help him realize his full potential and thus prepare him to take his place in the mainstream of the state's educational process. It should be noted that much of the child's success in his academic, social, physical, and psychological developments is dependent on the attitudes of parents, educators, and the community as a whole. The Texas Education Agency reports that 96.9 percent of the students who participated in the migrant program last year were Spanish-surnamed and that approximately 70 percent of the pupils served by the program were at the elementary level: kinder through grade six. In putting together the basic design of this child program the TEA sought to give equal emphasis, and thus assure equal participation, in the two structures. Of last year's participation of 48,848 students, 24,542 were enrolled in the Seven Month School Program and 24,303 were in Enrichment. This year the division is expected to be the same. The following table indicates the participation of migrant pupils by grade level from pre-kinder through high school.

PARTICIPATION BY GRADE LEVEL

GRADE LEVEL	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	PERCENT OF TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS
Pre-Kindergarten	1,619	3.0%
Kindergarten	3,733	6.8
1	6,166	11.3
2	5,548	10.1
3	5,594	10.2
4	5,441	10.0
5	4,983	8.3
6	4,541	9.1
7	4,190	7.7
8	3,809	7.0
9	2,346	4.2
10	1,739	3.2
11	1,452	2.7
12	1,005	1.8
Ungraded	2,059	3.8
Special Education	436	.8
Total	54,661	100.0

The SEVEN MONTH SCHOOL PROGRAM during the 1972-73 school year, operated in 18 school districts in the Rio Grande Valley and South Texas areas. Due to the migration patterns in these areas, migrant children return to their home base in mid October or earlier and leave in the latter part of April, and thus are not able to begin or complete the regular ten month term. In order to compensate for the inability of migrant children to begin the regular school term, the Seven Month School Program is compressed into 135 days which requires that the school day be extended plus a reduction in vacation time during the Christmas holidays. A minimum of eight hundred and four (804) actual instructional hours for primary grades and one thousand and eighty (1,080) actual instructional hours for intermediate grades must be provided to conform with the state Board of Education's requirements.

Migrant children in this program are grouped into separate classrooms which allows them to begin and end their "school year" at the same time. Each ISD in this group, in order to assure that the maximum number of teachers are available when the greatest number of students are in school, tries to adjust its calendar to the travel plans of the majority of migrant families and classes seldom begin before October 15 and never continue beyond the first week of May. In these programs the migrant pupil receives clothing, food, transportation, guidance and counseling, and social, psychological, dental and medical services. In addition to these services, special emphasis was placed on parental involvement programs during the 1972-73 school year, and each school district with a migrant program had at least one meeting a month of its parent advisory committee. Every home of the participating migrant children was also visited by either a teacher, an aide, or an ancillary person at least once during the school year. The primary responsibility for initiating good relations between the school and the home rests with the school personnel, however, the parents too, can contribute to the educational effort through their interest and cooperation.

The ENRICHMENT PROGRAM provides supplementary educational services to migrant children participating in the Texas Child Migrant Program. Even though situations may differ between school districts, each ISD must structure their programs within the framework of the following plans:

a) Extra Services During Day- The emphasis during these activities is on oral language development and classes are segregated by placing these students in separate classrooms for one or two periods a day where special instruction is provided by trained supplementary teachers.

b) Extended Day- Migrant children are integrated into the regular school program and participate in all school activities, then at the end of the regular school day the students receive one extra hour of instruction. The assignment of children to these classes is based on the conceptual development rather than age or grade level.

c) Separate Migrant Classroom-Non-Grade- These classrooms which contain only migrant children have the organizational structure of the non-graded plan. The pupil-teacher ratio of these classes must not exceed 22 to one and classes are encouraged to have a full-time teacher aide.

d) Combinations- School districts may combine the above plans in order to allow participation of greater number of migrant children. Each school district can design a local program based on the identified needs of the area's migrant children, hence provide for developmental instructional programs, for health and other ancillary services, and for a variety of enrichment activities. All schools include in their plans provisions for development of closer home-school relationships.

The PRESCHOOL PROGRAM has the following as its general objectives:

1) To establish an educational environment in which four year old migrant children are provided opportunities to develop intellectually, socially, physically and emotionally for entry into the first grade.

2) To provide opportunities for parents of these children to participate more effectively in their school community and to assume greater responsibility for increasing the educational and physical development of their children.

3) To increase the effectiveness of teachers who work with these children through a parental activities program which will provide a better understanding of the migrant child, his language and his culture.

After operating and evaluating pilot projects for four-year-old migrant children in Hereford, and McAllen, the T.C.M.P. funded 88 units in 46 school districts during fiscal year 1973. As the preschool program continues and follow-up data on participating youngsters is correlated much valuable information should be forthcoming to help answer the very important question; "What is the optimum age for starting the learning process?"

The SUMMER SCHOOL Programs for migrant children who did not migrate this year, continue to have an amazing acceptance. A total of 10,605 students in 45 school districts participated in the 1973 summer program, which is more than double the number of participants in fiscal 1972. Approximately 98.3 percent of the pupils were Spanish-surnamed and a total of $1,277,687 in ESEA, Title I Migrant funds was expended for the summer programs. In order to be eligible for the special educational and recreational programs a child must have migrated sometime during the past five years. The academic part of the program emphasizes oral language proficiency but also offers reading, social studies, science and math. The use of textbooks is held to a minimum while emphasis is placed on making education a pleasant experience.

The INTERSTATE COOPERATION Project operates for ten weeks during the summer when Texas' experienced and bilingual teachers work with the consumer states' education department staff to help provide schooling continuity in the work areas. During this period the teachers receive a salary, per diem and mileage. At the end of the summer a "reporting conference" is held in Austin at which time the teachers share what they have learned through their interviews with employers and migrants and through their contacts with program sponsors and service people in the states they visited. The project has as its purpose:

1) Make available to participating states, experienced teachers of migrant children;

2) To share among states an understanding of better teaching methods for Texas migrant children;

3) To assist in the implementation and use of the Migrant Student Record Transfer System;

4) To improve teaching techniques used in the instruction of migrant children;

5) To encourage Texas-based migrants to participate in the school programs of other states;

6) To expose participating Texas teachers to the problems confronting migrant children away from home.

In 1973, 20 states were selected to participate with Texas in the Interstate Cooperation Project. These states are:

California	Idaho	Iowa	Minnesota	New York	Utah	Wisconsin
Colorado	Illinois	Kansas	Nebraska	Ohio	Virginia	Wyoming
Florida	Indiana	Michigan	New Mexico	Oregon	Washington	

These states were selected on the basis of the number of Texas migrants who travel to these states for agricultural employment. The plan which calls for the use of 26 teachers is one of the efforts being made by the Texas Education Agency to develop and continue interstate cooperation in the national goal of the education of migrant children. Since some of the traditional teaching approaches have not proven effective in teaching migrant children, a closer relationship between the curriculum and the experiences of the migrant student outside of school are being emphasized.

A tool for increased efficiency in the education of migrant children, the Uniform Migrant Student Record Transfer System, is a computerized record keeping system designed to make information on any migrant child readily available, regardless of where he is enrolled. The central data bank is in Little Rock, Arkansas and is supported by hook-up terminals which send and receive records from throughout the country, 16 of these are located in Texas. This system not only keeps track of the students but also assures that they be placed in the proper class and assures academic credit for their away-from-home instruction. This data recording system also carries health information which often bears on the student's educational potential.

Since 1966, when the Texas Education Agency conducted the first Summer Institute for Personnel in the Texas Child Migrant Program to train staff and improve their competency in this specialized field of education, summer institutes have been conducted by institutions of higher education and educational service centers. For the summer of 1974, the Texas Education Agency will cooperate with four South Texas colleges and five Regional Educational Service Centers in sponsoring summer staff development institutes for personnel engaged in the teaching of migrant children. While in attendance the participants will receive a sustenance stipend which comes from Title I funds during the four to six weeks of study courses and demonstration work. A latent feature of this training approach is that personnel trained in this manner can move quickly into bilingual education when their school district begins to implement Texas' new compulsory bilingual education program in September of 1974.

In October 1973, the Texas Education Agency held its Eleventh Annual Migrant Workshop for personnel in the TCMP and visiting educators at McAllen in the Lower Rio Grande Valley. The

theme of the three-day meeting was "MIGRANT EDUCATION — A Cooperative Effort", and approximately 2,800 educators were brought together to participate in special sessions with national and state consultants in the areas of early childhood education, bilingual bicultural education, reading, oral language development, classroom management, record transfer system and supplementary instructional materials.

Adult Migrant Education In Texas:

There is no doubt that designing, seeking funds for and implementing educational programs for migrants is extremely difficult and frought with frustration. Among the most obvious barriers to any type of migrant educational or training program are; 1) family mobility, 2) lack of education foundation, 3) recruiting and acceptance, 4) transportation, 5) family sustenance, and, 6) course completion. How can program continuity be sustained if the student is continuously on the move? Where to start the learning process if the student has no educational background either in Spanish or English? How to create sufficient interest and confidence in the proferred program to cause enrollment and instill enthusiasm? What about getting the student to the teaching facility — and providing for family survival during the learning process? Is there any guarantee that the participant will complete the program — which could take a year or more?

Although these few questions (and there are many others) are difficult to answer separately and virtually impossible to find answers for collectively when considering child and youth programs, it is infinitely more difficult when dealing with program planning for adults. All too frequently adult migrants with family responsibilities who are shouldering the burden of relentless economic pressures can ill afford the luxury of an education; even if they are paid to study. So it is that millions have been spent through many agencies and organizations involved in A.M.E. programs in an attempt to educate adult migrants with little success. Admittedly, the results have been very costly and very unsatisfactory.

Even though HEW at the federal level continues to search and research for effective educational programs for adult migrants, the Texas Program for Adult Migrant Education was discontinued at the start of 1972 after six years of operation. Small classes, poor attendance, stipend payments and family sustenance combined to produce an unbelievable cost per class hour per participant. Evaluation reports showed a poor program product (minimal educational achievement) and dictated the final dissolution of the state program. However, the migrant adult still has a right to be educated and a way must be found to accomplish this fete. After almost four years of thinking and theorizing by the Division of Adult and Continuing Education of the Texas Education Agency, a new approach is being tried which no longer considers the migrants as a separate group but instead melds them into the general group of undereducated adults.

The 63rd Legislature passed HB-147, signed by Governor Briscoe on May 16, 1973, thus "authorizing and providing for supplemental aid programs for adult education". Section 3 of this Bill states: "The fact that 176,676 Texas adults have not completed one year of school, that 1,758,413 Texans over the age of 25 have less than a ninth grade education, and that 3,060,636 adults in this state do not have a high school diploma - - - "which helped to create the sense of urgency that resulted in passage of the Bill by a viva-voce vote. This then, was the legislation needed to expand and implement the TEA's carefully devised program plan to reach and serve our undereducated adults, including migrants and seasonal farm workers. Under HB-147 the TEA was mandated to, first, "administer newly appropriated state funds for providing instructional services for undereducated adults", and secondly, "to design and supervise a statewide system to meet the

total range of special educational needs of such adults. In essence, this "comprehensive adult education program" means a community or area program providing for the coordinated utilization of federal, state and local educational potential in a cooperative effort based on the concept of sharing. Thus the Agency was authorized and directed to integrate into the program the teaching resources of public school districts, regional educational service centers, junior colleges and universities.

The actual administration of these adult programs will be done by local public education agencies that will have discretionary cooperative authority to loan, trade or borrow resources among themselves and to adjust their accounting books accordingly without too much intervention from Austin. In the area of financing the TEA will reimburse the local agency (prime sponsor) a maximum of 90% of the eligible costs thus requiring a 10% local matching contribution which can either be in cash or in kind. In FY-73 there were fifty-eight Co-op Units formed whose prime sponsor make-up was:

Independent School Districts	32
Regional Education Service Centers	10
Community Colleges	10
County Superintendent of Schools	6

The projection for FY-74 is for sixty-two projects with an enrollment of 135,500 and a $4.88 million budget (federal funds at $2.95 and state at $1.93 million). The division of the total enrollment is expected to be:

Basic Education (grades 1-8)	91,000
High School Equivalency, GED	34,400
High School Credit Courses	10,100

It is interesting to note that of the five leading counties in projected enrollment,

Harris	=	14,300
Bexar	=	11,550
Tarrant	=	5,970
Hidalgo	=	5,830
Dallas	=	5,780

two of them, Bexar and Hidalgo, have a significantly large migrant and farmworker population eligible for this program. Recruiting and retention will, as usual, be the biggest problems but if the enthusiasm shown in grass roots surveys is indicative this new TEA adult program should prove successful.

Remaining as an integral part of this new and inclusive adult education program in Texas are two programs of some years standing; Adult Basic Education (ABE) and Manpower Development and Training (MDT). In the seven years from 1966 through 1972 these two programs have had a total enrollment of over 450,000 at a cost of fifty million dollars.

ABE —	372,950 enrollees
	— $19.0 million cost
MDT —	85,590 enrollees
	— $30.3 million cost

The ABE program is still 100% federally funded under Title III of the original Elementary and Secondary School Act and although some amendment changes in the Act are expected in 1974 it will continue to be a federal program. Last year's enrollment of 82,650 was almost double the average of the previous six years but the make-up and performance of the participants was average. The sex ratio was 57% female and 43% male. The age distribution is shown in Table I and the ethnic make-up is laid out in Table II and the cost of $39 per enrollee is down considerably from the old average of $50 plus.

Table I

Distribution by Age of
Adult Basic Education Enrollment

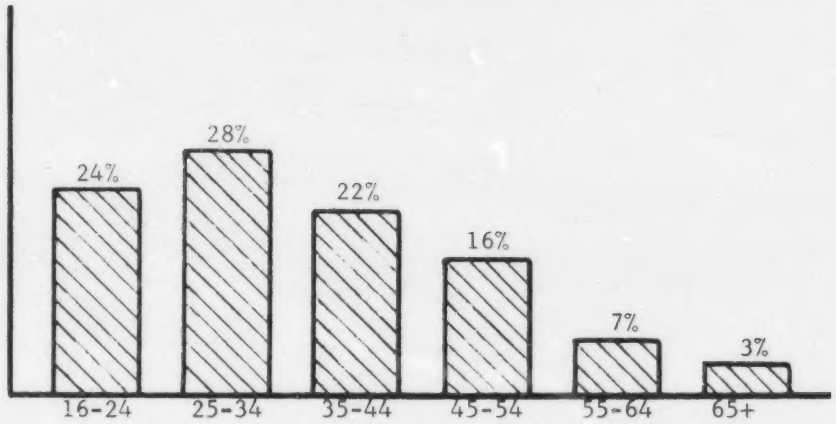
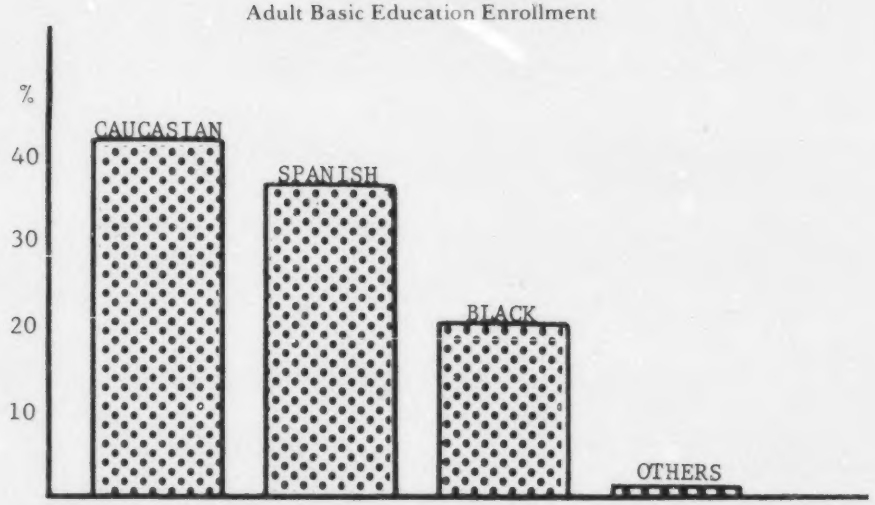


Table II

Ethnic Distribution of
Adult Basic Education Enrollment



Slightly over 30% of the enrollees dropped out or separated and 1/3 of these gave, 'I have met my personal education objective' as their reason for not completing the prescribed amount of class hours. This dropout percentage, although somewhat improved, continues to be one of the two major program problems. As one might guess, the "Two Rs" (recruiting and retention), determine the success or failure of all educational programs.

The MDT program amounting to only 23% of the total ABE enrollment, last year was operating in 49 training sites (over half of which were public secondary schools) with a total of 120 projects offering 41 different occupational clusters ranging from "A" of air-conditioning to "W" of welding. This last year the total enrollment was only half of the original projection due to delays in funding and other confusions at the federal level. However, it is felt that the implementation of the new "Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973" signed by President Nixon on December 28, 1973, most of the shortcomings recently appearing in the MDTA of 1962 programs will be resolved.

One very exciting resource being used in this MDT program is the Skill Center. By definition a Skill Center is a "self contained, centralized facility operating on a continuous basis and designed to provide institutional training". Think of a Center as a not-quite-technological-institute with the difference being that the institutes operate like colleges - on a semester basis - while the Center is an open-entry/open-exit type of operation with more inherent flexibility. Another plus for the Skill Centers is that they are required to provide a method which permits other agencies to "buy into" their training courses. Thus, by paying an agreed upon fee, such programs as WIN, SER, CEPT, JOBS, Job Corp, etc., can enroll their participants for training purposes. The Texas MDT program is justifiably proud of its four Skill Centers in Dallas, Fort Worth, Houston and San Antonio since in addition to vocational training they also offer a supplemental orientation component for the benefit of the participants dealing with:

Communications skills
Prevocational orientation
Bilingual or second language
Employment or second language
Aptitude evaluations
Personal counseling
Job development
Jobs and job follow up
Child care information
Housing and Transportation
GED assistance
Medical and dental services

Bilingual Education :

There are many children in the state whose primary language is other than English and experience has proven that public school classes which provide instruction only in English are often inadequate for the education of these children. A compensatory program of bilingual education can meet the needs of these children and facilitate their integration into the regular school curriculum. In recognizing the educational needs of children of limited English-speaking

ability, the commitment of bilingual education programs in the public schools and the provision of supplemental financial assistance to help local schools meet the extra costs of the programs must be re-emphasized. Bilingual education is necessary to give equal and adequate instruction to all of the children in Texas, and it can relieve the frustration and disillusionment toward the educational system felt by the pupil whose primary language is not English.

The educational achievement of children must not be limited because of their race, national origin or the fact that their home spoken language is other than English and to prevent this, students should receive instruction in the language that they are most familiar with and understand. Therefore, it can be said that teaching in two languages and using both as mediums of instruction for any part of the curriculum is "bilingual education", thus preparing the pupil to perform equally well in two languages. To accomplish this goal, the fundamental concepts of learning must be taught in the child's first language, and then followed by the second language which can be taught as though it were another subject.

Under the meaningful bilingual education act passed by the 63rd Legislature in July of 1973, some 40,000 first graders with little or no knowledge of English will receive instruction in their home language, Spanish. The compromise bilingual bill (SB-121) will phase-in state supported special language programs over a six-year period beginning in 1974, thus modifying bilingual education which is at the present time optional and supported by local school districts. Even though SB-121 requires the establishment of bilingual instruction for first graders during the 1974-75 school year for all school districts having at least 20 students with limited English-speaking ability, the program will advance one grade each year until it is offered through the sixth grade. The $2.7 million allocation approved by Texas lawmakers will finance both the 1973-1974 planning phase and the first year of implementation in 1974-75. Estimated state cost is $1.3 million for 1974 and $2.0 million for 1975, including teacher-training courses and $100,000 a year in administrative expenses. State costs are expected to rise to $3.8 million in 1976, $7.8 million in 1977 and $9.9 million in 1978, when administrative expenses will reach about $225,000.

Special instruction, aimed at Spanish-speaking children will cover, not only academic subjects, but history and culture associated with the pupil's native language. The bill authorized preschool and summer school programs and allows the TEA in 1973 to concentrate its efforts on developing teacher training programs and completing a school-by-school count of non-English speaking students. Reports indicate that there are some 700,000 public school students in Texas who have Spanish surnames; however, many of these students speak English and attend classes in the upper grades and are beyond the scope of the new law.

A shortage of Spanish-speaking and other dual language certified teachers is expected to be a major problem, particularly during the first years of the program, and already much of the effort by educators is to develop summer training institutes for English-speaking teachers who are not fluent in the Spanish language. Pilot teacher training programs in bilingual education are now under way in 10 Texas colleges and universities.

The approach to bilingual education in Texas has come as a direct result of surveys and evaluations which have proven that equity in education is not a reality. Although there are several ethnic minorities in our state the largest by far, and comprising 20 percent of the population, is the Mexican American or the Spanish speaking. The state Board of Education after much review has concluded that bilingual education offers a possible solution to the chronic problem of education

deficiency among the Mexican Americans, and that it also means an approach to better citizenship and an opportunity for intercultural harmony, improved self image and a road to better employment.

TEXAS BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROJECTS

Project District and Year of Project	Funding Authorized			Children Participating		
	70/71	71/72	72/73	70/71	71/72	72/73
Abernathy (5th)	$ 90,000	$ 78,000	$ 76,200	255	317	386
Abilene (3rd)	125,000	139,000	136,508	549	819	833
Alice (4th)	105,000	98,000	100,625	270	335	528
Austin, Reg. 13 (5th)	156,770	163,400	225,950	657	734	860
Bishop (2nd)		89,000	75,887		250	225
Brownsville (3rd)	150,000	198,000	192,754	780	1,492	2,372
Colorado City (4th)	70,900	71,300	73,115	213	273	292
Corpus Christi (4th)	85,000	104,000	91,000	300	480	660
Crystal City (3rd)	137,000	178,800	200,000	801	964	1,002
Dallas (3rd)	228,000	273,000	307,000	1,243	1,770	2,661
Del Rio (5th)	105,000	134,000	129,000	925	2,460	1,941
Eagle Pass (2nd)		55,600	58,130		390	640
Edinburg (4th)	121,500	140,600	129,712	690	1,200	1,700
Edinburg, Reg. 1 (5th)	200,000	198,800	73,640	1,250	1,508	887
El Paso (3rd)	156,000	149,800	141,346	960	1,148	1,414
Fort Worth (5th)	392,600	630,000	354,830	1,862	1,848	2,906
Galveston (4th)	92,000	76,300	81,119	150	200	250
Houston (5th)	253,350	253,000	232,938	1,000	1,275	1,500
Kingsville (4th)	73,000	73,700	67,479	205	293	383
La Joya (5h)	101,700	118,800	106,920	949	1,371	1,523

Laredo (5th)	100,000	91,600	77,200	480	450	533
Laredo (5th)	120,000	118,600	106,695	869	1,040	2,183
Lubbock (5th)	111,240	102,300	99,120	227	388	492
McAllen (5th)	104,930	110,800	111,750	648	840	1,066
Orange Grove (4th)	112,000	103,300	98,000	208	276	356
Pharr (3rd)	130,000	180,000	160,459	1,270	1,840	2,330
Port Isabel (4th)	166,500	181,400	181,410	383	501	607
Rio Grande City (2nd)		90,000	93,168		708	804
Robstown (2nd)		80,000	92,000		237	456
San Angelo (5th)	159,300	144,300	130,862	435	570	700
San Antonio (4th) (Alamo)	130,000	124,570	114,604	201	198	243
San Antonio (5th) (Edgewood)	223,200	355,000	425,500	1,440	2,460	3,720
San Antonio (5th) (S.A. ISD)	398,710	410,260	419,951	1,024	1,084	999
San Antonio (4th) (South S.A.)	110,000	120,000	129,000	434	902	1,579
San Antonio (3rd) (South Side)	125,000	120,000	121,200	279	362	465
San Diego (2nd)		79,300	90,412		448	540
San Marcos (5th)	199,630	196,000	174,000	1,560	1,627	1,080
Weslaco (5th)	110,000	143,940	139,805	860	1,100	1,188
Zapata (5th)	119,000	115,000	108,500	599	632	700
	$5,182,330	$6,187,470	$5,727,789	24,286	35,014	42,614

Number of Projects:
1970/71 = 35
1971/72 = 40
1972/73 = 39
Source: Texas Education Agency

Bilingual education is by no means limited to the State of Texas. During fiscal 1972 there were 106,000 Spanish-speaking children in 25 states and Puerto Rico enrolled in bilingual programs, which means that the Texas enrollment shown at the bottom of Page 45 is a large percentage of the national total. Texas therefore stands as the foremost in the field of bilingual education and the preceding list of on-going projects illustrates Texas' continuing commitment to bilingual education. Attention should be drawn to the fact that each year the number of students being served in bilingual education projects increases, whereas the total funding level of the T.E.A. seems to decrease. The reasoning for this apparent anomaly is that local school districts share a greater portion of the cost as the program years advance.

Regional Education Service Centers:

The State of Texas is divided into twenty regions, and each one contains an educational service center. Ten of the 20 service centers which operate in areas of high concentration of migrant children are designed to provide services to school districts in response to their needs. Other centers provide assistance in the development of programs and in the use of instructional materials for migrant school programs and aid in staff development through a variety of inservice training activities.

The objectives of the centers are to suggest ideas, teaching materials and to provide supplementary assistance and services to local school districts that request such aid. In many instances, the centers provide services which local schools are not able to provide for themselves, due to the cost or the lack of personnel and equipment. Membership to participate in a regional center is not obligatory and whether to take part or not is a matter for the local school district to decide. However, the concept of "service centers" has been favorably received since over 90% of the 1,200 ISD's in Texas participate in at least one phase of the regional program.

Structuring this program on a regional basis allows for maximum flexibility which for Texas is a must because of its size and diversity. The focus on regional planning permits the identification of local education problems and if it is determined that an identifiable need cannot be met by locally available services, an appeal can be made to the T.E.A. for a study to see if other services are warranted.

Of particular interest to us are the Migrant Media Centers, which provide audio-visual materials coordinated with the curriculum offered in the Texas Child Migrant Program. Under contract to the Texas Education Agency, Region I Education Service Center in Edinburg serves all local schools which are participating in the TCMP. This center has a collection of over 3,000 16mm films, multi-media kits, and sound filmstrip sets which are circulated each month to TCMP teachers. The Migrant Media Center also sponsors inservice workshops and institutes designed to promote effective use of the instructional media by the teachers. In just a few years the Regional Education Service Center concept has become an important adjunct to the T.E.A.'s educational effort and for those who direct local school districts, it is gratifying to have a reliable place to go for answers to problems and to borrow expertise and materials.

Texas Migrant Council, Inc.

From an embryonic idea, which occurred back in June of 1969, for providing continuous year-round Head Start type services to South Texas migrant children, the Texas Migrant Council has

grown into a formidable million dollar project with active programs in Texas and nine other states. As in the beginning, the operational office of the TMC, Inc., is still in Laredo but now with a greatly expanded program, mobile staff members must range far and wide to be with the migrant population they serve.

The Texas Migrant Council's Mobile Head Start program, which developed from an experimental day care/child training format, now contains a Home Start component, a Human Development Project and migrant child health services. The present staff numbers 151 and during calendar year 1973 this $1.4 million project served almost 4,400 migrant youngsters, age 0-6, at home and during "in-stream" travel.

If the TMC Inc. objective is to serve a selected migrant population on a year-round basis, it is obvious that mobility and flexibility have to be built into the program. This, of necessity required the development of two kindred but separate phases of the program; a winter phase at home in Texas and a summer phase in the destination work areas. The SUMMER PHASE last year consisted of twenty-nine centers (including four in the Panhandle region of Texas) that served 2,812 children in Alabama, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, Oregon, Minnesota and Wisconsin. The WINTER PHASE operated seventeen centers, all in South Texas, and served 1,562 migrant children. Since any program to serve migrants in their work area is dependent on the length of their stay there, the time span of Summer programs will vary from a short six weeks in some cases, to as long as four months in others which continue to operate until early November. The Winter programs on the other hand, can run as long as seven months while the migrants are at home. The Panhandle centers are to serve intrastate migrants during the working season, hence they become inoperative during the Winter phase.

The basic program structure for the migrant children is the classic Head Start formula built around Resting, Playing, Eating and Learning. Using borrowed or rented facilities, and often times local volunteers as aides, the trained TMC staff supervises these activities with particular emphasis being given to a good nutritional balance and basic education as preparation for public schooling. In some of the South Texas centers a companion program, called Home Start, offers essentially the same services and activities to rural families. The difference here is that the program is "delivered" to the home by the TMC and the parents are enlisted to carry out and report the progress of the program.

Concerning the third principal activity of the TMC, the Human Development Project, little can be reported at this time as the project was launched at midyear and is still in its formative stages. Support of better education by promoting General Equivalency Diploma (GED) programs and the development of a Social Services directory are two Development activities. The operational budget and the funding pattern for the TMC has been reported as follows:

Head Start	$1,400,000	HEW-OCD
Home Start	100,000	HEW-OCD
Human Development	175,000	HEW
Administration	95,000	D of L
	$1,770,000	

It may seem odd that the TMC has been included under Education since it has become of late a much more comprehensive service agency; however, since the main thrust of Head Start is still to prepare children for public school experience and since Head Start remains the main plank of TMC's program, the reader will agree that it should be included here.

Texas State Technical Institute:

The James Connally Technical Institute, which later became Texas State Technical Institute, was originated by the 59th Legislature on April 22, 1965 as a coeducational institution to provide occupational education and training services. Classes first began at the JCTI campus in January, 1966, on the site of James Connally Air Force Base near Waco, which at that time was being deactivated. An extension of T.S.T.I. was soon established at Harlingen in November of 1967 and since then the varied curriculum has filled a widely recognized need for technical training in the Rio Grande Valley. With the growth of the school at Waco and Harlingen the 61st Legislature in 1969 granted independent status to the Institute and funds for expansion were provided. Since that time T.S.T.I. has established two additional campuses, which includes the Mid Continent Campus in Amarillo and the Rolling Plains Campus in Sweetwater.

The Rio Grande Campus of T.S.T.I., the state's first bilingual technical institute, is of particular interest to us as it serves the people we treat with in this report. This school which started in 1967 using a converted gym of the cadet training center for classroom space, has today a $3.1 million modern campus with air-conditioned labs and classrooms designed for efficient teaching and learning. The facilities include six recently completed classroom buildings, spacious shops for different technical courses and an attractive landscaped campus. The Harlingen school, which is located in the southermost county of Texas, enrolls many youths from migrant families who are getting their first real chance for skill training and placement in a job. The broad curriculum and bilingual instruction provided at the Rio Grande Campus also attracts students from Northern Mexico.

B. HOUSING:

The previous section leaves little doubt that educational efforts continue to move forward on the legislative front and at the school district and state agency level. Unfortunately this cannot be said of housing. In Texas, house improvement just does not seem to move forward on any front that would be beneficial to migrants, either at home or on the move. For the past several years, very little significant progress has been made in the area of moderate housing cost. The shortage of decent homes and suitable living environments continues to exist at most levels of society and the imbalance between supply and demand is sometimes critical. The housing of migrant or seasonal agricultural workers, a matter of national concern, has been the area of least improvement. The combination of impounded funds, stalled FmHA programs and top level indecision has left everyone bewildered. Tight money supplies, both private and governmental, uncertain material supplies at constantly increasing cost are not conducive to a major building program. Where are we going in housing and when will we get started again?

It is an accepted truism that good housing not only contributes to the health and well-being of migrant farmworkers and their families, but also is important in maintaining community health. Adequate and comfortable housing has a beneficial effect on worker efficiency and is one requirement for a stable labor force. This means that the employer who provides the best housing has a greater chance of attracting and keeping good laborers who will work as long as they are needed and most probably return the following year for more employment. However, before this can be accomplished by upgrading present housing or constructing new housing, the economics of any plan must be solved. Investment and return are questions utmost in the minds of the farmer/grower and operators of privately owned labor housing and all too frequently the return does not seem to warrant the expenditure.

The quality of travel housing for Texas' seasonal farmworkers who migrate North for agricultural employment each year generally depends on their finances. Even when advanced travel monies have been provided by the future employer, migrant families and crews try to save as much as possible by spending as little as possible for overnight lodging and proper rest. Despite the national concern over labor housing and the fact Texas now has a labor housing law, there is not one supervised and full-facility rest stop for traveling farmworkers anywhere in the state. All of the "pass through" states that have, at one time or another, offered stop and rest facilities have closed them after a season or two. The reasons given are: uncertain client load, costly operation due to vandalism and abuse of the facility and "it is really not our problem anyway". One outstanding exception to this is the center in Hope, Arkansas.

The only rest stop, which offers complete and 24-hour supervised facilities on the northbound trek, is the Migrant Farm Labor Center in Hope and it operates a nine months season from March 1 through December 1. The Center has overnight sleeping quarters available as well as rest rooms, showers, cooking and eating areas and all migrant farmworkers who stop there can get information on work and crop conditions received from employment offices in the various work areas. The Rest Stop, which is in its second decade of service to migrant travelers, has been at its present location since 1965. This past season a special grant was used to equip all 20 trailers with window air conditioning units, a move which brought much favorable comment from the summertime "customers". The following figures are seasonal totals for an "up and back" count, as most migrants stop off on their return trip to homebase.

VISITORS TO THE HOPE, ARKANSAS CENTERS

1965 — 17,905	1968 — 48,593	1971 — 48,653
1966 — 28,237	1969 — 55,652	1972 — 48,463
1967 — 41,676	1970 — 56,613	1973 — 45,818

Even though designed and build as a service center for migrants, the rest stop in Hope has been an important data and information gathering source to this Commission and others involved in migrant programs. The Center serves as the only on-stream location where interviews are possible on a person-to-person basis and where demographic data is compiled from the visitor's registration forms. Although being one among several, this migrant travel route is the most important in the land and thus affords an accurate cross section of the traveling farmworkers. The following figures indicate that the demographic make-up has not varied over the years.

	Youth	Total	Workers	
Percentage of:	Under 16	Workers	Male	Female
1969	39.6%	60.4%	52.0%	48.0%
1970	40.3%	59.7%	51.5%	48.5%
1971	40.0%	60.0%	51.8%	48.2%
1972	38.5%	61.5%	53.2%	46.8%
1973	40.0%	60.0%	53.0%	47.0%

The Center, which is at present funded on a year-to-year contingency basis, operates within its $70,000 yearly budget and this means about $1.50 per visitor. Where could anyone avail themselves of what Hope offers for a dollar and a half? Several more rest stops on the other principal travel routes would be a welcome service to our traveling agricultural workers.

Ever since work area housing standards for migrants were established, the enforcement responsibility has traditionally been placed on the states and localities in which the migrants temporarily reside. Even though many of these communities have developed model building codes for both migrant and permanent worker housing there are significant disagreements between them on the enforcement of these regulations. For example, various communities have a different interpretation of "exempt" housing - housing to which the codes do not apply. Likewise, the enforcement of housing codes is not always consistent. The inspecting sanitarian may find code violations and grant temporary waivers, and if the time allowed the grower to correct or repair is excessive or if no remedial action has been taken by the end of the season, the violation is often overlooked.

Based on the Migrant Labor Camp Law established by the 62nd Legislature in 1971, and which is quite similar to those in thirty-two other states, the Texas State Department of Health has suggested the following health recommendations for the housing to be used by migratory agricultural workers.

STANDARDS FOR AGRICULTURAL LABOR HOUSING

HOUSING ACCOMMODATIONS:

All housing sites should be well drained and maintained in a clean, safe and sanitary condition free from standing water, rubbish, debris, waste paper, garbage, and other refuse. Shelters in all housing should be adequate and should provide protection to all occupants against the elements; floors of buildings used as living quarters should be constructed of wood or concrete; no housing with dirt floors acceptable; all living and sleeping quarters should be maintained in good repair and in a clean, sanitary condition. All outside openings should be protected with wire screening of not less than 16 mesh; all screen doors should be equipped with self-closing devices.

LOCATION:

The housing should be so located as to promote at all times the health, safety and well-being of persons accommodated. No housing area or areas should be located so as to create a polution hazard to any domestic or public water supply. No housing structure should be located less than 200 feet from quarters of livestock or poultry.

WATER SUPPLY:

An adequate and convenient supply of water of a safe, sanitary quality should be available at all times in each house for drinking, culinary, and hand washing purposes; if water is hauled, it should be comparable in purity to that used by the farmer himself and be hauled in a covered container. Water supplies shall be, if necessary, treated so as to provide water of a safe, sanitary quality. An adequate and convenient supply of water of a safe, sanitary quality should be available for bathing and laundering purposes.

SANITARY FACILITIES:

Approved toilet facilities adequate for the capacity of the housing must be provided and maintained in a sanitary condition. Pit-type toilets built under State Health Recommendations are permitted only when it is not feasible to furnish water carried sewerage facilities. Facilities should be provided for the satisfactory disposal or treatment and disposal of excreta and liquid waste; excreta and liquid waste disposal facilities should be inspected regularly and should be maintained in a clean and sanitary condition. Washing, bathing, and laundry facilities adequate to the capacity of the camp should be provided; wash tubs are acceptable.

HEATING AND LIGHTING:

When a camp is operated during a season and in a climate requiring artificial heating, all living quarters should be provided with properly installed heating equipment of adequate capacity. All housing structures should have adequate light, both natural and artificial, and sufficient ventilation for all rooms to insure sanitary condition.

COOKING AND EATING FACILITIES; GARBAGE AND OTHER REFUSE DISPOSAL:

Cooking and eating facilities separate from sleeping rooms and adequate to the capacity of the housing should be provided. All outside openings should be protected with wire screening of not less than 16 mesh; all screen doors should be equipped with self-closing devices. Metal cans, in sufficient quantity, with tight-fitting metal coverings must be provided for storage of garbage pending final disposal; at least two times per week garbage and refuse must be disposed of in a sanitary manner, and storage containers thoroughly cleaned.

BEDS AND BEDDING:

If sleeping facilities (beds and bedding) are to be provided for workers, such facilities shall be adequate and sanitized between assignment to different employees.

SAFETY AND FIRE PREVENTION:

First aid facilities should be available in all housing areas for emergency treatment of injured persons; all buildings or structures should be constructed, maintained and used in accordance with provisions of State or local regulations relative to fire prevention. Provision should be made for not less than two unobstructed means of exit from any structure in which people sleep or eat.

Coupled with the labor camp law was the announcement of the labor camp inspection program to be carried out by State Health Department personnel. The program became operational for state FY-73 which began September 1, 1972. The field staff was headquartered in Lubbock and initiated its efforts by locating and identifying potential labor camps that would come under the control of the new law. The city of Lubbock was chosen since it is the center of the High Rolling Plains where over 70% of all Texas farm labor camps are located.

The inspection program calendar was planned to span three years - until the end of FY-75 - and so far the Health Department is on schedule. The total inspection process is tedious and time consuming and must be repeated for every potential camp. The inspector or sanitarian must:

a) Locate and identify potential labor camps.
b) Visit site, explain the law and leave printed regulations.
c) Initial inspection, disapproval and application for temporary licensing, or
d) Initial inspection, approval and licensing.
e) Follow-up to insure continued compliance.

Once the program staff has completed its work in the High Plains and Panhandle areas the program progress will be much slower as the remaining 20 - 25% of the labor camps are spread throughout the state - and Texas is a big state.

In this connection an odd, but interesting situation has appeared as a result of the labor camp law, and at year's end remained unsolved. The Texas Employment Commission is responsible for the recruitment and placement of labor to employers on receipt of firm job orders, and this applies to agricultural workers along with all others. In the past the TEC had accepted the housing provider's statement that his housing was OK. However, due to a recent federal court order concerned with equity of access (see page 58) and which includes housing health and safety conditions, the TEC is required to inspect the housing being offered or have an acceptable outside certification. The logical place to obtain this certification would be to tie in with the Health Department's inspection program since the TEC does not have the capability in either funds, staff or technical ability for health oriented inspections. It is hoped that the Health and Employment agencies will be able to work together in this area to their mutual benefit.

There is nothing new that can be reported on multiple unit housing. Since the multiple unit projects were finished at Plainview in Hale County (1970) and Sabinal in Uvalde County (1971) there have been no plans or proposals for any other agricultural oriented housing projects. Here again, it is a question of economics. Thus far, none of the Texas projects has been self-sustaining despite the fact that the Farmers Home Administration has passed out "grant" funds for as much as 90% of the project cost. This situation is more than enough to dampen the enthusiasm of local housing committees or regional Councils of Government which are anxious to upgrade their area housing. So, being bluntly realistic, we see little chance that any new farmworker housing will be undertaken in the next few years.

For 1973 there is not much information to report in the area of Home Base Housing other than to update the figures on the activities of the Farmers Home Administration which finances low cost housing in rural areas and in small towns with populations under 10,000. Although the total national budget for the FmHA was pegged at $3.75 billion for FY-73, and was to touch the lives of four million citizens, the amount that went into Rural Housing loans was exactly half, $1.86 billion, which is up from the $1.60 billion of the previous year. The Texas share amounted to $253 million loaned in the following three categories:

LOANS MADE IN TEXAS, FY-1973

	Loans	Amount
Farmer Programs	44.598	$194,276,302
Community Programs	71	12,669,300
Rural Housing	3,764	46,095,810
	48,433	$253,941,412

Equivalent figures for the first six months of FY-74 show that $51.5 million in loans has been made which is less than one-fourth of the projected total for the twelve month period.

Farmer Programs	3,158	$29,404,182
Community Programs	38	9,700,200
Rural Housing	964	12,370,140
	4,160	$51,474,522

This rate of loan making is running true to form since the July to December loan volume is traditionally low, then picking up markedly during January and February. Although, as shown above, only $12 million plus had been spent on Rural Housing at the close of the calendar year, the total projection for the fiscal year in that category is $56 million which is to be invested as follows:

Unsubsidized Loans	$28,900,000
Subsidized Loans for Existing Dwellings	$14,400,000
Subsidized Loans for New Dwellings	12,650,000
	$55,950,000

At this writing it is difficult to predict if this loan goal will be met or not as the final effect of federal impounding of FmHA funds is yet to be felt. The loan program has obviously gotten off to a slow start and may have a hard time catching up with FY-73 even though the funds have been allocated.

FY 1969	4,000 loans	$26,000,000 loaned
1970	4,600	38,000,000
1971	7,140	72,000,000
1972	5,835	69,200,000
1973	3,764	46,096,000
1974 (6 mo.)	964	12,370,000 (of projected $56 million)

The Hidalgo County Housing Authority, which received a $162,000 loan in 1972, has built a new low cost housing project at Weslaco in the Lower Rio Grande Valley which will be inaugurated by mid-year of 1974. The project, which was built for local farmworkers as well as for migrants when not on the stream, will replace the broken down wooden structures of the adjoining camp which at the present time house 80 families in 42 apartments. The new labor housing complex will consist of 150 units (1,2,3 bedroom) which will accommodate approximately 750 persons. Each unit will be furnished with a refrigerator and a stove and the cost of utilities will be included in the base rent.

C. HEALTH:

Proper health care is essential to the overall well being of all migrant families, yet the farmworker's experience in trying to obtain health care from existing facilities is filled with bureaucracy, misunderstanding and often frustration. The migrant's health problem is unique because of the economics involved. With recent increases in medical costs the amount of medical care that a migrant family can afford is relatively small and the hard fact remains that the major deterrent to seeking health care is--money. The cost of good health care delivery in rural areas is at an all-time high and continued rising costs are prohibiting many migrant farmworkers from anything beyond one visit to a clinic. Also, it is very difficult for migrant families to visit a physician or a clinic, knowing they must be willing to give up a good portion of their salary. It is no surprise that the migrant worker visits a physician less than once a year compared to the average citizen, who sees a doctor 4.2 times a year. Lack of understanding between a Spanish-speaking migrant and an English-speaking physician is another factor which can lead to problems and difficulties.

The migrant farmworker's lifestyle of being always on the move following the crops gives rise to the problem of locating health care in a strange community. Seldom are complete medical records kept on the care a migrant has received, especially in rural areas where health care facilities are often inadequate. Often health facilities are not geared to meet the specific medical needs of the farmworker because some diseases endemic to migrants are not commonly found within the general population. An example is tuberculosis which is seldom found among most Americans but which still exists within the migrant population. The farmworker's life expectancy is 20 years less than that of the average American and the infant and maternal mortality is two and half times that of the national average. The migrant family is plagued by malnutrition, which is one of the major contributing factors to the poor state of the migrant's health, and tends to have a much higher mortality rate from diseases such as cancer and diabetes.

The shortage of medical personnel and facilities is all too apparent in rural America. The shortage of physicians in rural counties continues and their numbers will probably continue to decrease by attrition as elderly doctors retire or move away and are not replaced. In addition to the lack of doctors in rural counties, the physician-to-population ratio in rural areas is so low that people living in rural communities must travel long distances to receive medical care. As would be expected, rural hospitals are small, often inefficiently operated, and without sufficient equipment to provide comprehensive health services.

The Office of Comprehensive Health Planning's 1970 study, "Allied Health Manpower in Texas", found the average physician-to-population ratio for rural areas of the state to be one doctor per 1,467 persons and the osteopath-to-population ratio for rual Texas is one per 11,806 persons. In June of 1973, the Texas Medical association reported that Texas had 17 counties with a total population of 29,064, which were totally without physicians. Although rural and urban areas have many health care problems in common, the different background of rural populations calls for different health care delivery systems.

When the request for continued funding for the Texas Migrant Health Project was not approved by the federal Public Health Service in 1972, the delivery of health services to migrants in Texas received a tremendous blow. The administrative branch of the project which operated out of Austin was phased out on January 31, 1973 and its staff was absorbed by other divisions within the State Department of Health. At the present time, the 17 local clinics which have contined to operate and serve migrants in the field are uncertain what the future holds for them, but reliable sources have indicated that the Migrant Health Act of 1962 will continue to receive approval from Congress. The migrant health clinics which are still in operation are as follows:

LOCAL MIGRANT HEALTH PROJECTS OPERATING IN TEXAS
1973-1974

Project County	Grantee Organization	Grant Expiration
Hale, Crosby, Floyd & Lamb	South Plains Health Provider Organization, Inc. Plainview	5-31-74
Webb	Laredo-Webb County Migrant Health Department Laredo	5-31-74
Cameron	Cameron County Migrant Health Project San Benito	4-30-74
Jim Wells	Jim Wells County Migrant Project Alice	12-31-74
Zapata	Zapata County Migrant Health Project Zapata	5-31-74

Gonzales	Gonzales County Migrant Health Project Gonzales	5-31-74
Hidalgo	Hidalgo County Health Care Corporation Edinburg	12-31-74
La Salle	La Salle County Migrant Health Project Cotulla	3-31-74
Val Verde	Del Rio-Val Verde County Migrant Health Project Del Rio	5-31-74
Comanche	Leon Valley Migrant Health Project De Leon	5-31-74
Jim Hogg	Jim Hogg Counth Migrant Health Project Hebbronville	3-31-74
Hays	San Marcos-Hays County Migrant Project San Marcos	10-31-74
Starr	Community Action Council of South Texas Rio Grande City	12-31-74
Bexar	Southwest Migrant Association San Antonio	5-31-74
Deaf Smith	Deaf Smith County Migrant Health Project Hereford	5-31-74
San Patricio	San Patricio Migrant Health Center Mathis	5-31-74
Cameron and Willacy	Cameron & Willacy County Family Health Services Harlingen	4-30-74

During 1973, every effort was made by the local clinics to provide complete medical services to their patients. These include screening by nurses, care and treatment by physicians, and basic

laboratory services. Specialized medical care, limited dental care and complex laboratory and x-ray procedures were carried out via referral of patients to practitioners in the community who provided these services.

One health plan, still in the trial phase, which offers real promise as a possible model for other migrant impacted areas across the country, was initiated during the latter part of 1972 in Laredo, Texas. Having demonstrated past interest and expertise in migrant health care, the Laredo-Webb County Health Department was chosen by the regional office of the Migrant Health Program in Dallas to carry out a three-year study. One hundred migrant families were selected at random for the study which has as its first goal to determine the migrant's pattern in the use of health care and to estimate the cost of this free care. The second goal is to design a prepaid health care program that will deliver quality medical care to the migrant family, wherever they may be.

The first step of the plan was to design, with the assistance of Blue Cross-Blue Shield, a totally free medical and dental care package. The benefit package was then explained to each of the one hundred volunteer migrant families by health care workers. Each participant was encouraged to use the free medical care during their travels as well as when at home in Laredo, by presenting their membership card to any clinic or physician. The card explained that the patient's care would be paid for and asked the doctor to mail a report of the patient's treatment back to Laredo, thereby, assuring a complete medical record of the care each patient had received.

The results of the first year's survey, which will be completed in March 1974, will indicate the health care needs of a migrant family and whether migrants usually go to private physicians or to public clinics when they are traveling. Other information sought includes the program cost that will be paid by taxpayers, the average amount of money a migrant family spends on health care in a year, as well as what types of illnesses they consider serious enough to cause them to seek medical care. The result of this study may be of future use when Health Maintenance Organizations (HMO's) are implemented nationwide.

Health Maintenance Organizations (HMO's):

HMO's, which are legal in 32 other states, are technically legal in Texas, but are negatively affected by existing statuatory and constitutional laws. An HMO is broadly defined as a group or system which offers a full-range of health services to subscribers for a fixed monthly or annual fee, regardless of how many physicians services are required. The Health Maintenance Organization Act of 1973, which was passed by Congress and signed into law by the President in December, is significant and far-reaching legislation in the area of health care. In order for an HMO to receive the final funding, it would have to be registered and certified by the federal government, and comply with all the guidelines which will be issued in April 1974. Although the Act does not establish a permanent HMO program, it provides $3.5 million over a five year period to aid in determing the possibility of subsidizing a network of some 300 HMO's throughout the country.

Special Supplemental Food Program For Women, Infants & Children (WIC):

On September 26, 1972 a new section to the Child Nutrition Act of 1966 was approved. This section authorized the establishment of the Special Supplemental Food Program for Women,

Infants and Children (WIC Program) for the purpose of making specified nutritionally desirable foods available to pregnant and lactating women, infants and children under four and to collect and evaluate data which would medically identify the benefits of this food intervention program. The Department of Agriculture has prescribed the foods and the maximum monthly quantities of each food which are to be made available to the participants. These foods are intended to supplement the regular diet of participants, but not to be a complete diet in themselves; they are especially high in those nutrients known to be lacking in diets of those participating in the program which is currently being operated as an adjunct of the Food Distribution Program.

The WIC Program, which was established on a pilot basis through June 30, 1974, by the USDA, has a minimum number of requirements in its design and operation. Participating local health clinics are required to demonstrate that they serve low income populations considered to be nutritional risks and that they have the necessary facilities and other resources to effectively carry out the program. State departments of health must accept the responsibility for the system of making foods available to participating health clinics and for supervising all grantees selected by the regional Food and Nutrition Service (FNS) office.

Occupational Safety And Health Act (OSHA):

One of the most important laws that has ever been enacted for the protection of people at the workplace is the Williams-Steiger Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 which provides job safety and health protection for some 600 million U.S. workers in over 5 million workplaces. The purpose of this Federal law is to assure safe and healthful working conditions throughout the nation and it holds precedence over all state regulations concerned with worker health and safety.

All farmers and growers, agricultural producers and processors, plant and field workers (local and migrant) are subject to compliance with the regulations corresponding to their working conduct and their working environment. To ensure compliance with safety and health requirements, the U.S. Department of Labor conducts periodic job-site inspections made by trained safety and health compliance officers. The law requires that an authorized representative of the employer and a representative of the workers be given an opportunity to accompany the inspector for the purpose of aiding in the inspection. Workers have the right to notify the Department of Labor and request an inspection if they believe that unsafe or unhealthy conditions exist at their worksite. In addition, employees have the right to bring unsafe conditions to the attention of the safety and health compliance officer making the inspection. If upon inspection the Department of Labor believes that the Act has been violated, a citation of violation and a proposed penalty is issued to the employer. In an effort to prevent accidents OSHA inspections will include the entire food and fiber industry (on farms, in gins and presses, packing and processing, distribution). To guard against health hazards, inspections will be made of labor camp conditions, pesticide useage, vector menace, and ambient dangers for the benefit of both workers and employers.

The USDA reports that in nearly three years (April 1971-December 1973) the federal Occupational Safety and Health Administration has conducted 117,745 workplace inspections, resulting in 76,533 citations alleging 386,060 violations, with proposed penalties totaling $10,118,451. It should be noted that OSHA has been placing more emphasis on health standards to protect workers from job-related illnesses caused by the more than 25,000 known potentially toxic substances used in workplaces.

D. Manpower Services for Migrant Farmworkers:

In what may well be considered a speed record for such matters, it took less than two years to produce a declaratory judgment drastically redirecting the operational thrust of the United States Employment Service of the Department of Labor regarding services to migrants and other farmworkers. This milestone decision, in the form of an injunction order, was entered in the District Court of the District of Columbia on May 31, 1973 under the signature of Judge Charles R. Richey. Thus concluded the legal action on a petition filed in the spring of 1971 by the NAACP and sixteen other social action organizations in behalf of rural residents and migrant farmworkers. The basic charge in the suit was "discrimination in the delivery of manpower services" and the final consequences of the suit resulted in a new alignment within the Manpower Administration known as the policy of "equity of access".

Gradually, over the last two decades, the unplanned and uncontrolled rural-to-urban migration throughout our nation coupled with the decline in agricultural job opportunities have caused a very obvious distortion in the application of employment services by the USES from that envisioned in the original Wagner-Peyser Act. Under this Act, made law exactly forty years ago, the United States Employment Service was established and mandated to create and maintain a "national system of public employment offices" so that all citizens would have access to government sponsored employment services. This system seemed to live up to the expectations of its supporters until recent years when rumblings of discontent and expressions of unfairness and discrimination began to be heard.

Among the subdivisions under the general heading of the USES was the Farm Placement division which was designed to provide an unbiased, two-way mechanism to supply growers and farmers with needed workers and place farmworkers in much needed jobs. This intent was a very laudable one in theory as both actors in this employment drama were expected to benefit equally. However, over the years, the actual practice of matching job orders and referrals by the employment offices has undergone a number of significant mutations which lead some people to question the equity of the procedure in light of today's job market. The Department of Labor was not unaware of its gradually changing role in agricultural employment and in recent years it has attempted to accommodate itself by modifying its structure and guidelines to do more than just match farmworkers and jobs. Facing an era of declining farm and rural job opportunities it became apparent that the Manpower Administration would have to involve itself in job training, job development, job placement as well as job follow-up, all of which would require a change of image and identity for the department. Thus it was that the name of the Farm Labor Service was changed to Farm Labor and Rural Manpower Services. Then in 1970, to avoid the limitations of the word "farm" the name was again changed and simplified to Rural Manpower Service.

Despite the Department of Labor's efforts it was felt by a significant number of individuals and organizations that this was all merely "words and window dressing", hence their decision to seek reform and equity through court action. Upon being informed of the suit the Manpower Administration immediately named a Special Review Staff and assigned it the chore of investigating the complaints. The resulting report by the Special Review Staff (submitted to the Secretary in April of 1972) which substantiated a good number of the charges, caused the Department of Labor to take a new look at its capabilities and procedures. The result of this in-depth self examination was the issuance by the Secretary of Labor of a new department action policy consisting of thirteen interrelated points or declarations, designed to provide complete manpower services to rural residents and farmworkers and to achieve equity in the delivery of these services. By the summer of

1972 a National Task Force, consisting of regional and state office personnel, gave substance to the policy and developed instructions for its implementation as well as a progress monitoring system to assure policy compliance. This was known as the "Fiscal Year 1974 Plan of Service".

However, impatient with the slow progress of the implementation process at the "people level", 88 farmworkers and 17 farmworker organizations filed Civil Action 2010-72 in Washington to force the Department of Labor to move more quickly. Judge Richey found for the plaintiffs and ordered immediate compliance by the USES with the 13 points that had been announced a year earlier. The first step toward accomplishing this order was the issuing by the D. of L. of thirteen Field Memorandums specifying in detail the corrective action to be taken. These directives thus became a sort of service agreement between the Manpower Administration and each state employment security agency and full implementation of the directives is required if federal funding to the state offices is to continue. Seeing their operating funds in jeopardy there was much hustling in state and local offices from coast to coast.

Although each and everyone of these 13 points is a realistic approach to an area of concern, the following seven appear to have a broader scope of influence on our rural sector and a more beneficial impact on our migrant farmworker's immediate future. We list them under their official field memorandum number and title:

FM-336 "Full Range of Manpower Services for Migrant Workers"

FM-355 "Redirection of Manpower Services for Rural Areas"

FM-429 "Guidelines for a Comprehensive Employment Service Program for Rural Areas"

FM-436 "Transfer of the Farm Labor Contractor Registration Functions to Employment Standards Administration"

FM-438 "Representation for Rural Residents, Migrants and Farmworkers in the Governor's Planning Structure"

FM-441 "Registration of Farmworkers including Migrant Workers"

FM-443 "Guidelines for the Development of Procedures to Handle Worker's Complaints"

A prediction as to the success or failure of this realignment of manpower services would be risky indeed but those involved in the direction of the program express unswerving confidence in its outcome. Hopefully this will be the case since making government employment services equally accessible to all cannot be compromised.

E. COMPREHENSIVE EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING ACT:

One current development in the manpower field which must be included in this section and which took place during the closing days of 1973, was the presidential signature on December 28th of Public Law 93-203 which is entitled the "Comprehensive Employment and Training act of 1973". The stated purpose of this Act is:

> " - - - to provide job training and employment opportunities for economically disadvantaged, unemployed and underemployed persons, and to assure that training and other services lead to maximum employment opportunities and enhance self-sufficiency by establishing a flexible and decentralized system of Federal, State and local programs."

This new Act is the first major piece of Congressional manpower legislation since the Manpower Development and training Act of 1962. Its enactment is particularly timely as a) the old MDTA has undergone such repeated amendments that it is barely recognizable and b) the Administration wants to implement a comprehensive and nationwide manpower program to be administered at the state and local levels in accord with the New Federalism and revenue sharing. The Act, which carries an initial price tag of $1.8 billion, virtually ends the federal government's role in job training but does provide for an orderly transition of on-going programs under the MDTA, Titles I and III-B of the O.E.O. and the Emergency Employment Act of 1971 since the legislative mandates of these agencies to provide training services have in effect been repealed by this Act.

The structure of CETA involves six separate Titles, or sections, which are as follows:

Title I — COMPREHENSIVE MANPOWER SERVICES:
The purpose of this title is to establish a program to provide comprehensive manpower services throughout the Nation.

Title II — PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMS:
The purpose of this title is to provide unemployed and underemployed persons with transitional employment in jobs providing needed public services in in areas of substantial employment.

Title III — SPECIAL FEDERAL RESPONSIBILITIES:
The purpose of this title is to provide additional manpower services to segments of the population that are in particular need, including youth, offenders, persons of limited English speaking ability, older workers, etc.

Title IV — JOB CORPS:
This title continues the Job Corps for low-income disadvantaged young men and women and sets forth standards and procedures.

Title V — NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR MANPOWER:
This title established a national commission with responsibility to examen all issues concerned with national manpower programs.

Title VI — GENERAL PROVISIONS:
This is the wrap-up title consisting of definitions, special procedures and limitations, labor standards, interstate agreements, etc.

Part A of Title III, which is entitled Special Target Groups, deals specifically with migrants and seasonal farmworkers in its Section 303 which contains the following wording:

> The Congress finds and declares that —
> (1) chronic seasonal unemployment and underemployment in the agricultural industry, substantially affected by recent advances in technology and mechanization, constitute a substantial portion of the Nation's rural manpower problem and substantially affects the entire national economy;
> (2) because of the special nature of certain farmworkers manpower problems such programs can best be administered at the national level.

So despite the "regionalization and localization" of most all programs under CETA we find that, in the case of Section 303, the Secretary of Labor will establish a National Program to provide manpower services to assist the migrants and seasonal farmworkers and their families. The projects and activities of this section are designed to:

1) provide assistance and preparation for alternative job opportunities not in the agricultural industry.
2) provide a means of upgrading skills and earning potential for those who wish to remain in agriculture
3) provide any other services which the Secretary may determine as helpful in overcoming chronic underemployment, poverty and emergency situations

The basic mechanism of program development, funding and administration under CETA more or less follows the classic design of "prime sponsors, grantees and delegate agencies" which has been used for the past two decades. Funds under this Act may be awarded to federal, state and local units of government, and to public, private and non-profit organizations to act as prime sponsors. The funds are made available either through grants or by contract and once funds are obligated they will remain available for spending for two years from the obligation date. One interesting regulation in the Act is that applications from potential prime sponsors must be submitted to the Secretary of Labor with copies sent to the Regional Office of DOL and to the State Governor and hopefully this should help close the communication gap that has been all too obvious in top level planning recently.

Program activities designed to aid seasonal farmworkers in obtaining alternate employment include five basic areas: A) Manpower Training (institutional classrooms, etc.), B) On-the-Job Training, C) Subsidized Employment, D) Services (supportive) to Participants, and E) Economic Development. At this writing it is difficult to project a calendar for Texas programs under CETA as the actual starting date is July 1, 1974 and the phasing out of on-going programs (including the National Migrant Worker Program) is being spread out - in accord with previous funding - until December 31, 1974. At present, the life of the Act is stated to be "transition plus three years" which should give adequate time for planning an execution and it is to be hoped that this time the target group of Section 303 will realize a substantial and lasting improvement in their lot.

SELECTED DATA AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR 1973

It is far too early to announce a turn-around in the downward trend of national farm employment but a definite leveling off can be substantiated by the USDA's Statistical Reporting Service. Last year there was a slight increase in farm employment activity over 1972 which was due to more jobs and more work per worker as will be shown by some of the figures included in this section. Whether this apparent bottoming out will change to trending upward is difficult to predict, but last year's export volume of food and fiber coupled with an increasing worldwide demand points toward more agricultural effort and that means more man-months of farmwork. In the utilization of migratory farm labor, however, the downward trend of the last quarter century continues but at a much slower rate. Since the migrants are a part of the seasonal labor force, which includes local workers, housewives and summer youth, their job opportunities and the amount of work time available depends not only on crops and weather but also on the fluctuations of the local labor market. It is entirely possible that next year's data will show migrant labor demand to have leveled off responding to the national total.

	1960	1965	1970	1971	1972	1973
Man-Months of Seasonal Hired Farm Labor: (thousands)	9,151	8,079	6,604	6,423	6,289	6,295
Man-Months of Migratory Labor: (thousands)	1,674	1,529	1,181	1,095	1,018	996
Man-Months of Migratory Labor in Selected States: (thousands)						
California	279	403	307	322	316	326
Florida	100	102	110	95	93	100
Michigan	150	136	93	77	72	70
Texas	268	130	63	51	42	39

As would be expected, different states have different migrant labor needs. Weather, planted acreage and crop yield are the most important determining factors, but the kinds of crops and whether or not they can be mechanized is very important in some states. Texas mechanized its cotton harvest during the decade of 1960-70 and Michigan started mechanizing some ground crops and process cherries in the late sixties; the figures show what happened to migrant labor demand.

To better illustrate the national trend in total farm employment which, as we have noted, appears to have leveled off, we want to also include the seasonal variation in labor demand and show the variation in labor force make-up. This is done in Table I on the following page.

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Table I

NATIONAL FARM EMPLOYMENT
(thousands)

	1971			1972			1973		
	Low	Ave.	High	Low	Ave.	High	Low	Ave.	High
TOTAL:	3,345	4,436	5,347	3,288	4,373	5,235	3,328	4,395	5,257
Family	2,666	3,275	3,544	2,618	3,228	3,519	2,640	3,232	3,459
% of total	80%	74%	66%	80%	74%	67%	80%	74%	66%
Hired	678	1,161	1,803	670	1,146	1,716	688	1,163	1,797
% of Total	20%	26%	34%	20%	26%	33%	20%	26%	34%

The month of July always has the highest farm labor demand and January is the lowest in labor needs. In other words, during the winter, farm labor consists of the farmer, his family and his year-round hired hands whereas during the peak demand months of the summer we must include local help, out of school youth and migrants. It is interesting to note how consistant the worker mix is from year to year and from low demand to high demand months. It is also interesting to note that if we take an average of the Hired Low (680,000 workers) and subtract it from the Hired High (1,780,000 workers) we find that the average maximum increase in demand is about 1,100,000 throughout the nation.

The trend in farmworker wages is the same as it has been for a number of years; upward, but not enough. On a national average the per hour wages increased by 11¢ from 1971 to 1972 and 16¢ from 1972 to 1973. These figures are far less than half of the increases received by workers in industry and commerce. A look at the discrepancy in wages without room or board between some states is shown.

	1972		1973	
	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest
Massachusetts	$2.12		$2.26	
Washington	2.12		2.26	
California	2.07		2.24	
Connecticut				
West Virginia		$1.35		$1.56
South Carolina		1.39		1.53
Mississippi		1.42		1.53
U.S. average	1.84		2.00	

Looking at the picture of Texas farm wages in Table II on the opposite page, it is all too clear that in the past six years the straight per hour wage rate has increased by a bare 63¢ - or 10¢ an hour per year! No other industry has received such minimal raises. So again we have the irrefutable proof that not only do farmworkers start at the bottom of the wage scale, suffer seasonal uncompensated lay-offs but also receive the smallest increases - actually, not near enough to cover the increases in the cost of living which is monitored by the government.

TEXAS AVERAGE FARM WAGE RATES

Year	Per Day		Per Hour		
	With House	Without Bd. or Rm.	With House	Without Bd. or Rm.	Composite Rate Per Hour
1967	$8.60	$9.40	$.99	$1.12	$1.04
1968	$9.40	$10.40	$1.09	$1.23	$1.15
1969	$10.20	$11.20	$1.17	$1.31	$1.23
1970	$11.00	$12.00	$1.24	$1.38	$1.32
1971	$11.70	$12.80	$1.35	$1.55	$1.42
1972	$12.40	$13.60	$1.44	$1.59	$1.50
1973	$13.30	$14.60	$1.55	$1.75	$1.58

Texas has always been below the national average in agricultural wages because the South Texas farmworker earnings are among the very lowest in the nation. As we have seen, the spread between California and Mississippi for 1973 was 73¢ and with Texas at $1.75 per hour her place is twelfth from the bottom of the list.

The downward trend in job referrals and placements for Texas agricultural workers made by the Texas Employment Commission continues and with new procedures being developed for the Rural Manpower Service it is doubtful that T.E.C. will ever again play the number one role it did up until 1968. That was the year when the labor consuming states found themselves unable to process employer work orders, if the labor housing provided by the employer did not meet federal standards. The decline in this activity is indicated below:

Year	Job Opening	Job Orders	No. of States	Job Workers Referred to	Individual Workers
1967	132,660	2,451	39	78,040	54,949
1968	102,791	2,072	34	65,855	47,520
1969	67,345	1,147	33	44,378	39,470
1970	50,027	1,005	31	30,624	27,408
1971	27,424	926	27	17,215	16,820
1972	31,969	486	28	15,975	13,718
1973	18,837	308	28	11,042	10,439

The same trend is apparent concerning the T.E.C.'s role in total farm placements, crews and out-of-state groups, as the following figures bear out:

	1967	1970	1973
Total Farm Placements	263,000	196,000	133,700
Crews and Family Heads	5,182	2,300	727
Out-of-State Groups	3,674	3,090	1,723

RECOMMENDATIONS:

In concluding this annual report the Commission wants to present, in brief and unadorned form, several recommendations that would result in direct and immediate benefit to migrant farmworkers and their families. Some of the following recommendations will require legislative action to put them in motion and give them statutory validity, while the implementation of others will require administrative directives to bring about refinement, and in some cases redirection of some agency programs. Others will require interstate understanding and cooperation to give real substance and meaning to that often used word COORDINATION. Coordination between suppliers and consumers in industry, commerce or government is essential to assure efficiency of flow and ensure consumer satisfaction; is not the same circumstance true of Texas and those states where her migrant labor is needed?

The Good Neighbor Commission is well aware that not all of these suggestions can be implemented immediately thus the purpose of the order in which they are being presented is to give the reader our priority inclinations based on our assessment of need and urgency.

1) That the Governor of Texas make immediate contact with the governors of the migrant labor consuming states to offer his good offices in a nationwide coordination effort for the benefit of migrant farmworkers. Governor to governor contact is essential if we are to realize the much sought after, but so far elusive, interstate coordination which will result in alignment of similar agencies with similar goals. In this respect the Good Neighbor Commission is in an ideal position to assist the Governor as an interstate liaison agent since its files contain many interstate contacts and such a service would be in keeping with the Commission's mandate.

2) Establish guidelines and regulations to support the issuance of ID cards for migrant workers. This would not only serve the migrant as identification and as an aid for establishing eligibility for Food Stamps and other special programs here and "on stream", but serve the state (and all interested agencies) with a fairly accurate census of the "active" migrant population. A migrant population figure becomes every day more necessary and this is one way to get it. The issuance of these cards could be coordinated among several state agencies such as T.E.C., D.P.W., D.P.S., T.D.C.A., etc. The success of this registration program depends on convincing the migrant that it is to his advantage to carry a wallet sized ID card - if not so convinced, he just won't bother to register.

*3) Get the Texas State Department of Health back into the migrant business at the program administrative level where it was for ten years. The absurdity of operating federally funded local migrant health clinics in Texas without any control or intervention on the part of the official state health agency is obvious. If further federal monies are denied, then the state of Texas should supply the funds to reactivate the migrant subdivision.

4) Two essential amendments to the Migrant Camp Law are required for clarity, better coverage and more inclusion:

> Section 1. (a) should be changed from " . . . for fifteen or more seasonal, temporary, or migrant persons, and . . ." to read " . . . for three or more single workers and/or two or more migrant families and . . . "

Section 1. (c) " . . . employed in agricultural . . . " should be changed to read " . . . employed in agricultural or related industry . . . ". The addition of these three words is necessary to include migrants who are working in processing plants, canneries and cotton gins whose inclusion is at present being contested.

*5) The Labor Camp Inspection Program of the Texas State Department of Health should be substantially increased in both funds and staff. It is true, as we stated, that the program is pretty much on schedule but being realistic one must confess that the schedule is far too slow for the labor camp law to be as effective as it should be. Further reason for staff increase is that compliance continuity will be far more time consuming than was originally projected.

*6) Enlarge the staff of the Texas Migrant Labor Camp Inspection Program (ref. to 5) and celebrate an interagency agreement with the Texas Employment Commission to perform its labor camp inspections. At present, the T.E.C. (Rural Manpower Services) is required by court order (discussed on page 51) to actually inspect or accept certification from a qualified authority in order to refer workers to jobs where housing is provided by the employer. Compensation for these services by the Department of Health could be arranged on a fee-for-service basis and paid for by an interagency transfer or directly from the Department of Labor.

7) Create a consortium, or interagency group, of the Texas Industrial Commission, the Texas Employment Commission, the Greater South Texas Cultural Basin, the Texas Department of Community Affairs and the federal Economic Development Administration to really improve the dismal economic situation in South Texas. The time has come to wed action with planning and come up with concrete results. It is obvious that this will require monetary subsidies on the part of the state and the federal government since South Texas is so underdeveloped in many respects and so far from the consumer market that location in this area of private, unsubsidized industry is unlikely. The U.S. government (particularly the armed forces) is the nation's biggest customer, and Texas has the largest armed services population in the land, so why is our aluminum sent out of state to make canteens, our hides sent away to make boots, our cotton sent elsewhere to make uniforms, etc. when these and many more industries could be located in South Texas to the benefit of all concerned?

8) Require the Secretary of State to compile, publish and distribute to interested agencies and citizens a quarterly list of all private, non-profit and non-governmental organizations that have migrant oriented programs or activities and who are registered with his office. Our state agencies with migrant programs have always been hampered in their efforts by never knowing for sure who else is involved in similar programs, the amount and source of funds or what the program objectives are. (An unbelievable proliferation of local programs funded from Washington and from private foundations treating with education, health, economic development, social adjustment, etc., make no effort to cooperate with state agencies. The resulting overlap, duplication and chronic ineffectiveness in the field of migrant programs only leads to confusion, inefficiency and bewilderment on the part of the migrants.)

9) Provide the necessary funding and staff to permit the Texas Department of Labor and Standards (formerly the Texas Bureau of Labor Statistics) to carry out its mandate to monitor the Labor Agency Law. At present, the department is attempting to police labor recruiters and employment agencies in the Lower Rio Grande Valley to assure compliance with the Labor Agency Law with one sub-office staffed by one inspector and one secretary. Is it any wonder that compliance has broken down completely, that the required monthly reports from all labor agents are missing and that worker complaints go unresolved? Further, it should be mentioned that the department has not published its Report on Migratory Labor Movement since 1968.

10) Establish within state government a State Housing Authority and endow it with funds to carry out an "agricultural labor camp construction grants program" similar to the $500,000 program in Michigan. This a fund matching program in which the state matches the owner's expenditure (not to exceed $10,000) for the cost of building or improving his farm labor housing. If the state and society insist that the housing owner provide higher standard housing then the state should share in its cost.

11) Create within the body of the Department of Public Welfare a migrant component similar to the migrant subdivision of the Social Services departments in Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin, Illinois, etc. The D.P.W. serves the migrant farmworkers and family members using the regular procedures of its general program; however, the special factors surrounding migrants indicate the need for special attention. Creation of this subdivision would help in establishing the much needed interstate coordination that is recommended under point 1).

12) Amend the Labor Agency Law, administered by the Texas Department of Labor and Standards, to require private recruiting agents as well as those representing companies to show proof that the housing where the workers will be domiciled meets federal housing standards before they can refer workers to a prospective employer.

13) Insure that a realistic share of federal funds for migrant projects be allocated to Texas, based on the state's proportion of the total migrant population. This is even more important than before since the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 is now a reality as we have discussed on page 60.

*These three recommendations could be combined into one single Department of Health subdivision.

The above group of recommendations is by no means all inclusive nor have all areas of concern been touched upon; however, all of them are worthy of consideration. This Agency will continue to "sponsor by repetition" as it did with the Child Labor Law, the Migrant Transportation Law and the Migrant Labor Camp Law. In final conclusion, the Good Neighbor Commission will welcome comments and suggestions from its readers on these few recommendations, as well as any others the readers themselves may have.